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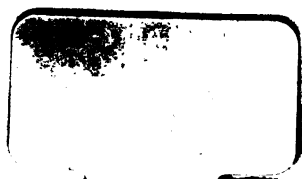
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TO THE 19th CENTURY.*

BY

W. F. COLLIER, LL.D.,

Author of "British History," "History of English Literature,"  
&c. &c.

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## PREFACE.

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THIS book has for its aim to give in a series of graphic pictures such a connected view of the Christian Era as may be pleasantly readable and easily remembered.

Many pupils leave school—some students even leave college—with wide gaps in their knowledge of History. There are thousands whose knowledge of Europe between the Fall of Rome and the Reformation is confined to a few vague and scattered ideas. That is partly owing to the study of History in schools being confined, in many cases, to the beaten round of Great Britain, Greece, and Rome; and partly to the fact that most “Outlines of General History” are uninteresting summaries of facts and dates, which take but a slight hold of the mind. Professing to give in complete detail the history of every land in the world, they may be valuable as books of reference, but they are often worse than useless for teaching purposes. When men of ripe and strong mind are able to remember but little of Gibbon or of Macaulay except their brilliant passages, it is foolish and indeed cruel to expect young and tender memories to retain more than the Great Events of History. What these Great Events are, the young need to be told, else their after-reading will be confused and wearisome. This book has been specially prepared with the view of serving as a guide to the learner—of abridging his labour, and sweetening his toil.

The Great Events of British History are not here described, though they are entered in the Chronological Tables; because it is intended that this book should be read immediately after the

study of our national story. In order to connect the two courses, the Contemporary Events and Sovereigns in British History are mentioned prominently at the head of each chapter.

Each chapter is headed also by its Central Point of interest, on which the memory may easily rest, and around which, without difficulty, the minor events will group themselves in the mind. To this plan of teaching history by Central Points, the attention of those teachers who have not yet adopted it in their class-work is earnestly directed.

At the close of each Period, a supplementary chapter is devoted to the delineation of Life and Manners in some leading country or great age, occupying a conspicuous place in the history of the time. Similar chapters in the British History in the same Series have proved to be among the most attractive, and certainly not the least useful portions of that work.

In the present edition, Explanatory Notes and a Summary have been added to each chapter, in order to aid the scholar in the preparation and the revision of his work. The Sketch Maps have been specially prepared in order not merely to show the position of important places, but also to illustrate the territorial changes which Europe has undergone at different periods. The Woodcuts consist chiefly of authentic portraits of great men, and of plans and diagrams of an instructive character. The Geographical Appendix is intended for constant reference; for the more Geography and History are studied together, the more accurate and lasting will be the knowledge acquired in both fields.

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# THE GREAT EVENTS OF HISTORY.

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## First Period.

From the Opening of the Christian Era to the  
Fall of the Western Empire.

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### CHAPTER I.

#### *FOUNDATION OF THE ROMAN EMPIRE.*

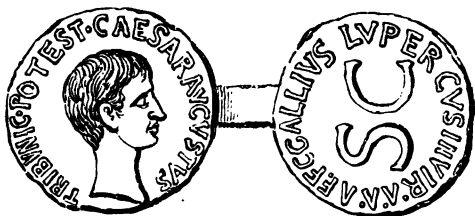
Central Point: Reign of Augustus—31 B.C.—14 A.D.

British History: Emperor Claudius in Britain—43 A.D.

1. **The Christian Era.**—The Christian Era began in the reign of the first Roman emperor. A decree which went out from Cæsar Augustus, "that all the world should be taxed," or *enrolled*, led Joseph and Mary to Bethlehem a few days before the birth of Christ. Thus the foundation of the Roman Empire, and the foundation of Christianity, occurred about the same time. The fact is interesting, because these two institutions have had the greatest influence on the history of Europe and of the world from that day to this. It was due to the wide extent and the stability of the emperor's power that the world was in a state of profound peace at the time when Christ was born.

2. **The Imperial Title.**—Twenty-three years previously, Cæsar, then known as Octavian, had outstripped all his rivals, and had drawn the whole power of the State into his own

hands. His supremacy was acknowledged by the Senate, which in 27 B.C. conferred on him the title *Augustus*; that is, "the Illustrious." They did not give him the title *Rex* ("King"), or



BRASS COIN OF AUGUSTUS.

that of *Dictator*, which his uncle, the great Julius Cæsar, had borne; because both of these titles were hateful to the Roman people. Neither did he adopt the title *Imperator* ("Commander" — "Emperor") in the sense in which it was afterwards employed. At first that was purely a military title, given to the commander-in-chief of the army; and it was not till a later time that it acquired the civil signification now associated with the name. The most remarkable thing about the title *Augustus* is that it was not the title of an office, like *Rex* or *Imperator*, but was the description of an individual. Cæsar was called *Augustus* on account of his personal qualities and position, just as Alexander was called *Magnus*, and like Charles the Great of Germany, Peter the Great of Russia, Frederic the Great of Prussia, and Alfred the Great of England. Nevertheless the title was handed down to his immediate successors, to some of whom it was wholly inapplicable in its literal sense.

3. **Republican Institutions continued.**—Though Augustus became the sole ruler of the State, with absolute power, the republican forms of government were not formally abolished. The Senate continued to sit. The other popular assemblies were elected as usual. The offices of consul and præfect or magistrate were retained. But these officers became mere instruments in the hands of the emperor. They dared not act in opposition to his will, and all power passed away from them. The government was still republican in form, but it was de-

spotic in reality. This change had a very important effect on the position of the city of Rome. It ceased ere long to be the ruling city. The supreme power was gradually transferred from the citizens to the emperor. His subjects in all parts of the empire were declared to be Roman citizens, having the same privileges as the inhabitants of the Seven-hilled City. Rome ceased to be the seat of empire, and became merely the emperor's capital. In course of time it ceased to be even that.

4. **Extent of the Empire.**—In the time of Augustus, the Roman dominions embraced the whole of the civilized world, and a good deal of it that was considered barbarous. They extended from the Thames, the Rhine, and the Danube in the north, to the African Sahara in the south, and from the



THE ROMAN EMPIRE IN THE TIME OF AUGUSTUS.

Euphrates in the east to the Atlantic Ocean in the west. An empire so widely extended included different races and nations, with which it was natural that Rome should contract different relations. All were bound to accept her civil government; but some accepted her civilization and her language as well. This

was the case with Italy, Gaul (France), Spain, and Portugal. These countries were not only conquered by Rome, they were also Romanized; and the languages which they use to this day are the direct descendants of the old Latin tongue. Thus it was that the Roman Empire formed the foundation of the leading States of Western Europe.

**5. The three Civilizations.**—On the other hand, Greece, Macedonia, and the countries of Asia Minor as far as to Mount Taurus, retained the Greek civilization and the Greek language. Still farther east, and in Syria and Egypt, the ancient Oriental civilization was never displaced by that of the Roman rulers. There were thus three distinct forms of civilization and culture prevailing in the wide-spread Roman empire—*Latin* in the west, *Oriental* in the east and south, and *Greek* in the middle.

**6. Rome in the time of Augustus** became a magnificent city. The walls surrounding it extended to twenty miles, and were pierced by thirty gates. The population is estimated to have been upwards of two million. Its streets were spacious, and its public buildings were magnificent, the chief of the latter being the Capitol, the Temple of Janus, and the Senate House. It was the boast of Augustus that he “found the city brick and left it marble.”

**7. Golden Age of Roman Literature.**—The reign of Augustus is deemed the golden age of Roman literature. Then flourished Vergil, Horace, and Ovid, three of the greatest Roman poets, and had as their patrons Augustus himself and his minister Mæcenas. Roman art, which was founded on that of Greece, also made progress in the days of Augustus.

**8. The Crucifixion of Christ: 33 A.D.**—As the foundation of the Roman Empire was the greatest event in the political history of Europe, so the birth of Christ was the most momentous in the spiritual history of the world. Very few of those then living were able to estimate its importance. Certainly the Romans did not. Though Rome and Christianity in alliance afterwards became a great power, they were at first opposed as rivals and as enemies. When Christ was crucified at Jerusalem in the reign of Tiberius, it was after his trial and condemna-

tion by Pontius Pilate, the Roman procurator ("governor") of Judea.

9. **Roman Conquest of Britain: 43 A.D.**—Another striking event of the early Roman Empire was the beginning of the Roman conquest of Britain in the time of the Emperor Claudius. Gradually the whole of South Britain became subject to Rome, and continued a Roman province, with Roman governors and Roman garrisons, for nearly four centuries.

#### NOTES.

§ 1. Decree, Luke ii. 1—"And it came to pass in those days, that there went out a decree from Cæsar Augustus, that all the world should be taxed" (or enrolled).

6. Capitol, the temple of Jupiter at Rome; so called because it stood on the top (Lat. *caput*, "the head") of a hill. The hill was called *Capitolinus*.

Janus, the god of light or of the sun. Hence *January*, the month dedicated to Janus.

7. Vergil, Horace, Ovid. For notices of these and other great men, see "Great Names of the Period" at the end of each section.

Mæce'nas, Caius Cilnius, a Roman knight. He claimed descent from the kings of Etruria; died 8 B.C. He was famous as a patron of men of letters, and Vergil and Horace owed much to his friendship and favour.

8. Jerusalem. For notices of important places, see the "Geographical Appendix."

**SUMMARY.**—The Christian era began in the reign of Cæsar Augustus, the first Roman emperor.—27 B.C. The title of *Augustus* was conferred by the Senate on Cæsar Octavian. The old republican institutions were maintained, but they were brought completely under the control of the emperor. The Roman dominion comprised the greater part of Europe and small parts of Asia and Africa. Italy, Gaul, Spain, and Portugal accepted the Roman civilization and language. In south-eastern Europe the Greek civilization was retained, and in Syria and Egypt the Oriental. Vergil, Horace, and Ovid flourished in the reign of Augustus—the golden age of Roman literature.—33 A.D. The crucifixion of Christ was sanctioned by the Roman procurator of Judea.—43 A.D. In the time of the Emperor Claudius, Britain was conquered by the Romans.

## CHAPTER II.

### THE SIEGE OF JERUSALEM.

**Central Point: The Burning of the Temple—70 A.D.**

**British History: Agricola an Officer in Britain—69 A.D.**

1. **View of the City.**—The general aspect of Jerusalem as it was in the time of Christ may be readily realized. Supposing ourselves standing on Mount Olivet and looking westward, we have right in front the magnificent Temple of Herod, crowning the steep crest of Moriah with white and gold. To the south-

west—highest of the four hills on which the city lay—towered the rocky Zion, bearing on its shoulders the citadel, the royal palace, and the houses of the Upper City. Behind the Temple, and north of Zion, was the hill Akra, covered with the terraces and gardens of the Lower City; while on another slope Bezetha and the New City stretched further north toward the open country. The first wall enclosed Zion and part of Moriah; the second included Akra and Bezetha; the third included the New City, farther north.

2. **Revolt of the Jews: 68 A.D.**—The aspect of the city had changed but little when, thirty-seven years later, the Roman eagles gathered around their prey. But during those years the Jews had been plunging deeper and deeper into vice and wretchedness. At last, goaded by outrage and insult, they had risen against their Roman masters; and the great Vespasian, a general trained in German and British wars, had been sent by the Emperor Nero to reduce them to obedience. Moving with his legions from Antioch to Ptolemais (or Acre), he was there joined by his son Titus, who brought forces from Egypt.

3. Galilee and Perea were subdued after some delay; and the conqueror, having drawn a circle of forts around Jerusalem, was at Cæsarea, preparing for the last great blow, when he heard the news of Nero's death. The army in Palestine proclaimed Vespasian emperor. He hastened to secure Alexandria, the second city in the empire; and having heard while there that the people of Rome were holding feasts in his honour, he set out for Italy (69). So the siege of Jerusalem was left to his son Titus.

4. **March of Titus.**—Mustering his forces at Cæsarea, and dividing them into three bands, Titus marched for the doomed city. Arrived there, he fortified three camps—one on the north, one on the west, and one, garrisoned by the Tenth Legion, on the Mount of Olives, in the east. On this last the Jews made a sally as the soldiers were digging the trenches; but they were soon beaten down the hill.

5. Within Jerusalem, the scene was a pitiable one of murder, and outrage, and cruel terror. Robbers, calling themselves

(Zealots) had flocked in from the country. Eleazar, at the head of one set of these, held the inner court of the Temple. Another leader of ruffians, named John, occupying ground somewhat lower, poured constant showers of darts and stones into the holy house, often killing priests and worshippers as they stood at the altar. In despair, the people of Jerusalem called in a third robber-leader named Simon to their aid; and thus there were three hostile factions within the walls. In the fighting that occurred within the city, many houses were burned, and as much corn was destroyed as would have sufficed for a siege of many years.



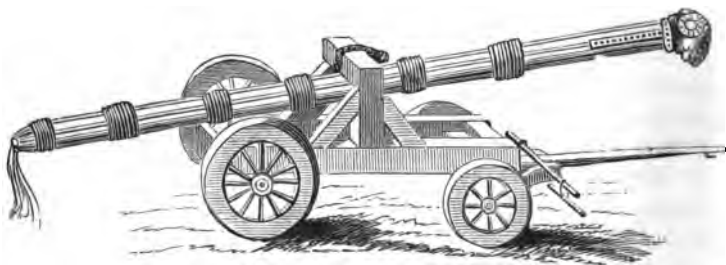
THE COAST OF SYRIA.

6. The number of people in Jerusalem was very great, as the feast of the Passover was at hand, and thousands crowded from every corner of the land to offer up their yearly sacrifice. When the Temple was thrown open on the day of the feast, a number of John's party, mingling in disguise with the throng, and carrying weapons under their clothes, gained entrance into the sacred court, and soon drove out their foes. The poor worshippers, all trampled and bleeding, escaped as best they could. John remained master of the Temple; and thus the three factions were reduced to two.

7. Within the city, there were above twenty-three thousand fighting men—a strong body if they had been united. There was,



indeed, a temporary union, when they saw the Roman soldiers busily cutting down all the trees in the suburbs, rolling the trunks together, and dragging to the top of the banks thus formed the huge siege-engines of the time—rams, catapults, and ballistas.



ROMAN BATTERING-RAM.

8. **Opening of the Siege: April, 70 A.D.**—The siege opened in three places at once in the beginning of April. The Roman missiles poured like hail on the city; but none were so terrible as the stones, sometimes weighing more than one hundred pounds, which were cast from the east by the Tenth Legion. The Jews replied with some engines planted on the wall by Simon, flung torches at the Roman banks, and made an unavailing sally from a gate in the western wall.

9. Three towers of heavy timber, covered with thick iron plates, were then erected by Titus. Rising higher than the walls, and carrying light engines, they were used to drive the Jews from their posts of defence. The fall of one of these at midnight with a loud crash spread alarm through the Roman camp; but it did not last long. At dawn the rams were swinging away, and pounding against the shaking wall, which on the fifteenth day of the siege yielded to Niko (the Conqueror), as the most ponderous of the Roman engines was called by the Jews. The legions, pouring through the breach, gained the third or outmost wall.

10. Pitching his camp within the city, Titus then attacked the second wall, where he was vigorously met both by Simon and by John. Sorties and wall-fighting filled up every hour of

daylight; and both sides lay by night in their armour, snatching hasty and broken sleep. In five days the second wall was forced. Titus passed within it at the head of a thousand men; but the Jews set on him so hotly in the narrow streets, that they



PLAN OF JERUSALEM.

soon drove him out again. Easily elated, they exulted greatly in this success; but, four days later, the second wall was retaken, and levelled with the ground.

11. Then followed a pause of five days, after which the attack was renewed at John's Monument, and the Tower of Antonia. At the same time, Josephus, a noble Jew, from whose graphic history this sketch is drawn, went to the walls—as he had done before, as he did oftener than once again—to plead with his countrymen. But all in vain; for the Zealots were bent on holding out, and slew such of the people as they found trying to desert.

12. **Famine in the City.**—Famine had long before begun its

deadly work. Mothers were already snatching the morsels from their children's lips. The robbers broke open every shut door in search of food, and tortured most horribly all who were thought to have a hidden store. Gaunt men, who had crept beyond the walls by night to gather a few wild herbs, were often robbed of the handful of green leaves for which they had risked their lives. Yet, in spite of this, the starving people went out into the valleys in such numbers that the Romans caught them at the rate of five hundred a day, and crucified them before the walls, until there was no room to plant, and no wood to make, another cross.

13. The Romans then raised four great banks against the wall. But these were all destroyed;—two by John, who dug a mine below them, and set them on fire; and the other two by three brave Jews, who rushed out on the engines, torch in hand. The Romans were driven to their camp, but the guard at the gate stood firm; and Titus, taking the Jews in flank, compelled them to retreat.

14. **Capture of the Tower of Antonia.**—This serious loss made Titus resolve to hem in the city with a wall. It was built in the amazingly short time of three days! The attack was then directed against the Tower of Antonia, which stood at the north-west corner of the Temple, on a slippery rock about one hundred feet high. Four new banks were raised. Some Roman soldiers, creeping in with their shields above their heads, loosened four of the foundation stones; and the wall, battered at all day, fell suddenly in the night.

15. But there was another wall inside. A little dark Syrian soldier led a forlorn hope of eleven men up to this in broad noon-day, gained the top, and put the Jews to flight; but, tripping over a stone, he was killed, as were three of his band. A night or two after, sixteen Romans stole up the wall, slew the guards, and blew a startling trumpet blast. The Jews fled. Titus and his men, swarming up the ruined wall, dashed at the entrance of the Temple, where for ten hours a bloody fight raged. Julian, a centurion, attacking the Jews single-handed, drove them to the inner court; but the sharp nails in his shoes

having caused him to fall on the marble floor, they turned back and slew him with many wounds. Then, following up their success, they drove the Romans out of the Temple, but not from the Tower of Antonia.

16. Strange omens had foretold the coming doom. A star, shaped like a sword, had hung for a year over the city. A brazen gate of the inner court, which twenty men could hardly move, had swung back on its hinges of itself. Shadows, resembling chariots and soldiers attacking a city, had appeared in the sky one evening before sunset. At Pentecost, as the priests were going by night into the inner court, they heard murmuring voices, as of a great crowd, saying, "Let us go hence."

17. After the Roman wall was built, the famine and the plague grew worse. Young men dropped dead in the streets. Piles of decaying corpses filled the lanes; thousands of dead bodies were thrown over the walls. No herbs could be got. Men, in the rage of hunger, gnawed their shoes, the leather of their shields, and even wisps of hay. Robbers, with wolfish eyes, ransacked every dwelling; and when one day they came clamouring for food to the house of Mary, the daughter of Eleazar, she set before them the roasted flesh of her own infant son! Brutal and rabid though they were, they fled in horror from the house of that wretched mother.

18. **Burning of the Temple: August.**—At last the daily sacrifice ceased to be offered, and the fighting closed around the Temple. The cloisters were soon burned. Six days' battering had no effect on the great gates; fire alone could clear a path for the eagles. A day was fixed for the grand assault; but on the evening before, when the Romans had penetrated as far as to the Holy House, a soldier, climbing on the shoulders of another, thrust a blazing torch into one of the windows of the north side. The building was soon a sheet of flame. Titus, who had always desired to save the Temple, came running from his tent and ordered the fire to be extinguished; but his voice was drowned by the din of war and the roar of the flames.

19. On over the smoking cloisters trampled the legions, eager for plunder. The Jews sank in heaps of dead and dying around

the altar, which dripped with their blood. More fire was thrown on the hinges of the gate; and then no human word or hand could save the house where God himself had loved to dwell. Never did the stars of night look down on a more piteous scene. Sky and hill and town and valley were all reddened with one fearful hue. The roar of flames, the shouts of Romans, the shrieks of wounded Zealots, rose high into the scorching air, and echoed among the mountains all around. But sadder far was the wail of broken hearts which burst from the streets below, when marble wall and roof of gold came crashing down, and the Temple was no more. Then, and only then, did the Jews let go the trust to which they had clung—that God would deliver his ancient people, smiting the Romans with some sudden blow.

20. **The Citadel taken.**—The Upper City then became a last refuge for the despairing remnant of the garrison. Simon and John were there; but the arrogant tyrants were broken down to trembling cowards. And when, after eighteen days' work, banks were raised, and the terrible ram began to sound anew on the ramparts, the panic-struck Jews fled like hunted foxes to hide in the caves of the hill. The eagles flew victorious to the summit of the citadel, while Jewish blood ran so deep down Zion that burning embers were quenched in the red stream.

21. The siege lasted one hundred and thirty-four days; during which eleven hundred thousand Jews perished, and ninety-seven thousand were taken captive. Some were kept to grace the Roman triumph; some were sent to toil in the mines of Egypt; some fought in provincial theatres with gladiators and wild beasts; those under seventeen years were sold as slaves. John was imprisoned for life; Simon, after being led in triumph, was slain at Rome.

22. **The Triumph at Rome.**—It was a gay holiday when the emperor and his son, crowned with laurel and clad in purple, passed in triumph through the crowded streets of Rome. Of the many rich spoils adorning the pageant none was gazed on with more curious eyes than the golden table, the candlestick



TROPHIES FROM JERUSALEM.

with seven branching lamps, and the holy book of the law, rescued from the flames of the Temple. It was the last page of a tragic story. The Jews—homeless ever since, yet always preserving a distinct nationality—were scattered among the cities of Earth, to be the Shylocks of a day that is gone by, and the Rothschilds of our own happier age.

## NOTES.

§ 7. **Ram**, a heavy beam used to destroy the lower parts of a wall. It often had a ram's head at one end.

**Catapult**, used for throwing darts or bolts at defenders on the walls.

**Ballis'ta**, an engine for throwing large stones against the walls.

11. **Tower of Antonia**, the fortress of Jerusalem, on the north-west of Mount Moriah.

22. **The Candlestick**. It is shown in the sculpture on the Arch of Titus at Rome, representing part of the procession. The candlestick itself stood in a temple at Rome till 455, when it was carried off by the Vandals. It was afterwards returned to Jerusalem, but it disappeared thence.

**Shylocks**. Shylock is a Jewish money-lender in Shakespeare's play *The Merchant of Venice*.

**Rothschilds**, a family of rich Jewish bankers. In 1875 they advanced £4,000,000 to the British Government for the purchase of shares in the Suez Canal.

**SUMMARY.**—68 A.D. Vespasian and Titus his son were sent by the Emperor Nero to subdue the Jews in Syria, who had revolted. Galilee and Perea were subdued.—69. Vespasian became emperor, and the siege of Jerusalem was left to Titus.—70. Titus began the siege. Bands of robbers held the city, and fought with each other. Famine carried off the Jews by thousands. Titus passed through two of the city walls and took the Tower of Antonia. Then the Temple was set on fire by a Roman soldier, and the citadel was taken. The siege lasted one hundred and thirty-four days, and more than a million of Jews perished, while ninety-seven thousand were taken captive.

### ROMAN EMPERORS OF THE FIRST CENTURY.

Augustus .....	B.C. 31 to A.D. 14	Vitellius .....	A.D. 69
Tiberius .....	14	Vespasian .....	69
Caligula .....	37	Titus .....	79
Claudius .....	41	Domitian .....	81
Nero .....	54	Nerva .....	96
Galba .....	68	Trajan .....	98
Otho .....	69		

## CHAPTER III.

### EARLY PERSECUTIONS OF THE CHRISTIAN CHURCH.

Central Point: Diocletian's Persecution—303 A.D.

British History: South Britain a Roman Province.

Martyrdom of Alban of Verulam—304 A.D.

TEN persecutions of the Christians—some fierce, others fainter—marked the dying struggles of Paganism. More than three centuries were filled with the sounds and the sorrows of the great conflict.

1. **Nero's Persecution: 64 A.D.**—In the tenth year of the cruel Nero's reign, the first great persecution of Christians took place. A tremendous fire consumed nearly the whole city of Rome. Men said that the emperor's own hand had kindled the flames out of mere wicked sport, and that, while the blazing city was filled with shrieks of pain and terror, he sat calmly looking on, and singing verses on the burning of Troy to the music of his lyre. As this story found ready acceptance among the homeless and beggared people, the tyrant inflicted tortures on the Christians and the Jews, in order to turn the suspicion from himself upon them. Many were crucified on the pretence that they were guilty of the atrocious crime. Some, covered

with the skins of wild beasts, were worried to death by dogs in the theatres. Tender girls and gray-haired men were torn by tigers, or hacked with the swords of gladiators. But the worst sight was seen in the gardens of Nero, where chariot races were held by night. While poor men and women of the Christian faith, their clothes smeared with pitch or some other combustible, stood blazing as torches to throw light on the sport, the emperor himself, dressed as a common driver, whipped his horses around the goal. In the wider persecutions that followed—for this one was chiefly confined to Rome—there was perhaps no scene of equal horror.

2. **Domitian's Persecution: 95 A.D.**—By Domitian, sixth in succession from Nero, proceedings of great severity, but of a character less brutal, were taken against the Christians. It was a harvest-time for the spies, who crept everywhere, and grew rich with the spoils of the men whom their information doomed to exile or to death. The cousin and the niece of the emperor, accused only of "atheism, and Jewish manners," were among the sufferers. Many were banished; among them St. John the evangelist. Driven, about 95, to the isle of Patmos, he saw there the visions of glory and mystery recorded in the Book of Revelation. The two grandsons of St. Jude were brought before a Roman tribunal, charged with aiming at royal power, for they traced their descent from King David. But when they showed their hands, hardened with honest toil on their little farm, they were sent home unhurt.

3. **Trajan's Edict: 110 A.D.**—Under the gentle Nerva the Christians lived in peace, and spying ceased to be a well-paid business; but when Trajan, a stern Spanish soldier, became emperor, evil days returned; as yet, however, only in a single province. Pliny the younger, appointed proconsul of Bithynia in Asia Minor, found himself at a loss how to deal with the Christians, who were very numerous under his rule. He wrote to the emperor, saying that the "superstition"—so he called it—had spread everywhere, among rich and poor; that the temples were empty, and the sacrifices hardly ever offered. The worst he could say of the Christians, although he seems to have taken



great pains to know all about them, was that they used to meet on a certain day (Sunday) to sing a hymn in honour of Christ ; that they bound one another by a vow not to steal, or to commit adultery, or to break their word, or to defraud any one ; and that on the same evening they met at a simple and innocent meal. The fact that a skilful lawyer, as Pliny was, did not know how to deal with the Christians, shows that as yet there were no special laws framed against them. The answer of Trajan must be looked on as the first edict of persecution. It declared that the Christians were not to be sought for by the police, like common criminals ; but that, when openly accused and convicted, they were to be punished. But before receiving the imperial decree, Pliny had let loose the terrors of the law. He demanded that the Christians should burn incense and pour wine before the statues of the emperor and the gods, at the same time cursing the name of Jesus Christ. Those who refused were put to death ; some, of weaker faith, yielded to the terror of the hour.

**Hadrian's Edict.**—Early in the reign of Hadrian, who came to the throne in 117, the rage of the pagan mobs burst out against the Christians with a force which had been gathering for years. Those attacks, which were encouraged by the common belief that Christianity was now condemned by law, took place especially in Asia Minor. Two learned Christians approached the throne with "Apologies," or defences of their faith, when the emperor arrived in their neighbourhood on one of the rapid journeys for which he was remarkable. Influenced perhaps by these addresses, but rather by his love of justice and order, he published an edict, forbidding Christians to be arrested on mere rumour, and ordering all false informers to be heavily punished.

**4. Reign of Marcus Aurelius : 161 A.D.**—The reign of the elder Antonine was a time of comparative peace to the Christians ; but when Marcus Aurelius, the last of "the good emperors," ascended the throne in 161, there came a change. Active search was made for Christians, and torture began to be inflicted on them. It seemed, indeed, as if both the rulers

and the people of pagan Rome were beginning to realize, though as yet vaguely and dimly, the growth of that power which was destined soon to smite their iron empire into dust.

**Martyrdom of Polycarp: 166 A.D.**—At Smyrna, the Christian Church suffered heavily. Yielding to the rage of the heathens and the Jews, the proconsul flung the followers of Jesus to wild beasts, or burned them alive. The noblest of the noble victims was Polycarp, Bishop of Smyrna, a man bending under the weight of nearly ninety years. When seized he asked for an hour to pray. They allowed him two hours, and then hurried him on an ass toward the city. The chief of police, meeting him on the way, took him up into his chariot, and vainly strove to turn him from the faith. On his refusal, he was flung so violently to the ground that one of his legs was severely injured. Before the tribunal, amid a crowd howling for his blood, he was urged to curse Christ. "Eighty-six years," said he, "have I served him, and he has done me nothing but good; and how could I curse him, my Lord and Saviour?" Before the flames rose around him, he cried aloud, thanking God for judging him worthy to drink of the cup of Christ.

**The thundering Legion: 174 A.D.**—The legend of the "thundering legion," which belongs to this period, probably rests on some historical foundation, though handed down to us manifestly in a somewhat mythical form. While Marcus Aurelius—so the story runs—was warring with some German tribes, his soldiers, marching one day under a burning sun, were parched with deadly thirst. The foe, hovering near, threatened an attack. A terrible death seemed to stare them in the face, when a band of Christian soldiers, falling on their knees, prayed for help. A peal of thunder, accompanied with heavy rain, was the immediate, and, as it seemed, miraculous response from the skies; and the soldiers, catching the precious drops in their helmets, drank and were saved.

**5. Persecution in Gaul: 177 A.D.**—This event is said to have softened the emperor's feeling toward the Christians; but the change, if any, was very slight, for three years later a fierce persecution arose in the heart of Gaul. Pothinus, Bishop of

Lyons, a feeble old man of ninety, died in a dungeon. Those Christians who were Roman citizens enjoyed the privilege of death by the sword; the rest were torn by wild beasts. The friends of the dead were denied even the consolation of burying their loved ones; for the mutilated bodies were burned to ashes, which were scattered on the waters of the Rhône. A young man of Autun, a town not far from Lyons, was beheaded for refusing to fall on his knees before the car of an idol. As he went to execution, his heart was strengthened by his mother's voice crying: "My son, my son, be steadfast; look up to Him who dwells in Heaven. To-day thy life is not taken from thee, but raised to a better!"

**6. Martyrdom of Perpetua: 202 A.D.**—The reign of Septimius Severus was marked by a terrible persecution in Africa. By his direction, a law was passed forbidding any one to become either a Jew or a Christian.

From many touching stories of those bitter days, take one. A young mother, named Perpetua, aged only twenty-two, was arrested at Carthage for being a Christian. Her father was a pagan; but from her mother's lips she had learned the story of Christ. When she was dragged before the magistrate, her gray-haired father prayed her earnestly to recant; but, pointing to a vessel that lay on the ground, she said, "Can I call this vessel what it is not?"—"No."—"Neither, then, can I call myself anything but a Christian." Her little babe was taken from her, and she was cast into a dark, crowded dungeon. There was no light in her desolate heart for some days, until her child was given to her again; and then, in her own tender words, "the dungeon became a palace." Before the trial came on, her father pleaded again with tears, and kisses, and words of agony, seeking to turn her from what he considered her obstinate folly. But all in vain. Neither her father's tears nor her babe's cries could turn her from her resolute purpose; and she died with many others, torn to pieces in the circus by savage beasts, amid the shouts of still more savage men.

**7. Maximin's Persecution: 235 A.D.**—Maximin, the Thracian giant, who gained the throne by murder in 235, persecuted those

Christian bishops who had been friends of his predecessor. In many provinces, too—in parts of Asia Minor, for instance—the people, roused to fury by severe earthquakes, fell upon the Christians, declaring that their blasphemies had brought these judgments on the land.

**8. Decius's Persecution: 250 A.D.**—The Emperor Decius ascended the throne in 249. Then the long calm which the Christians of Rome had enjoyed was rudely broken. One great use of these persecutions was the sifting of the Church—the driving out of those who, in peaceful days, had become Christians from convenience merely, or from vanity. Decius seems to have resolved utterly to destroy Christianity. His hatred of the bishops was intense. Fabianus the Roman bishop was martyred. Both in Rome and in the provinces, imprisonment and torture awaited every faithful witness; and among the refinements of torture, hunger and thirst came into common use. But a rebellion in Macedonia and a Gothic war turned the attention of the emperor from the Christians, and by his death they soon gained a short breathing-time.

**9. Valerian's Edict: 258 A.D.**—In the fourth year of Valerian an edict was issued in unmistakable words—“*Let bishops, presbyters, and deacons at once be put to the sword.*” The aim of this edict seems to have been to check Christianity by cutting off the heads of the Church. Sixtus, the Roman bishop, and four deacons were the first to suffer. But a more distinguished victim was Cyprian, Bishop of Carthage, who, after having escaped the Decian storm, was now beheaded for refusing to sacrifice to the pagan idols. Valerian having been defeated by the King of Persia, whose triumphal car he was forced to drag in chains, died in the far East. His son Gallienus restored to the Christians their burial-grounds and other property taken from them in the late reign. This was a great step, for it was a public acknowledgment that the Christian Church was a legal society; and it no doubt did much to save the Christians from the wrath of Aurelian, who became emperor in 270. His short reign of five years was wholly occupied with his efforts to restore “the universal empire;” and, bigot though he was, he

allowed it to slip away without striking a blow at the Christians. His murder, in 275, left forty years of peace to the Church, which, like a young tree amid violent tempests, had only been striking its roots deeper, and taking a firmer grasp of the soil.

10. **Diocletian's Persecution : 303 A.D.**—Fiercest, widest, and last was the persecution that broke out under Diocletian and Maximian. At early dawn, on the day of a great Roman feast; the splendid church of Nicomedia, Diocletian's Eastern capital, was broken open; all copies of the Bible found there were burned; and the walls were levelled with the ground by the imperial soldiers. This was done at the instigation of Galerius, the emperor's son-in-law. Next day a terrible edict appeared, ordering all Christian churches to be pulled down, all Bibles to be flung into the fire, and all Christians to be degraded from rank and honour. Scarcely was the proclamation posted up, when a Christian of noble rank tore it down. For this he was roasted to death. Fires, which broke out in the palace twice within a fortnight, were made a pretence for very violent dealings with the Christians. Those who refused to burn incense to idols were tortured or slain. The persecution raged in every part of the empire, except in Gaul, Britain, and Spain, where it was discouraged by Constantius Chlorus. He did no more, however, than keep it in check; for it was then that Alban, the proto-martyr of Britain, was sacrificed at Verulam. Even after the abdication of the emperors in 305, Galerius kept the fires blazing; and so far did this pagan go in his miserable zeal, that he caused all the food in the markets to be sprinkled with wine or water used in sacrifice, that thus the Christians might be driven into some contact with idol-worship. For eight years, the whip and the rack, the tigers, the hooks of steel, and the red-hot beds, continued to do their deadly work with little intermission. Then in 311, when life was fading from his dying eye, and the blood of martyrs lay dark on his trembling soul, Galerius published an edict permitting Christians to worship God in their own way. That was the turning-point in the great strife: thenceforward Roman paganism rapidly decayed, until it was finally abolished by Theodosius in 394.

## NOTES.

§ 4. Polycarp. According to tradition, he was appointed Bishop of Smyrna by the Apostle John.

7. Thracian. Maximin was surnamed Thrax, because he was a native of Thrace, north of Greece.

**SUMMARY.**—There were ten persecutions of the early Christians. 1. Nero's persecution at Rome, in 64 A.D. 2. Domitian's persecution in Rome and Syria, in 95. 3. Trajan's in Bithynia, in 110. Hadrian's edict, protecting the Christians, was issued in 118. 4. Persecution under Marcus Aurelius: Martyrdom of Polycarp at Smyrna, 166. 5. Persecution, also under Marcus Aurelius: Martyrdom of Pothinus at Lyons, 177. 6. Persecution under Septimius Severus, in Africa: Martyrdom of Perpetua, 202. 7. Maximin's persecution in Asia Minor, 235. 8. Decius's persecution in Rome and the provinces, 250. 9. Valerian's edict: Martyrdom of Sixtus at Rome, and Cyprian at Carthage, 258. 10. Diocletian's persecution, beginning at Nicomedia and spreading over the whole empire, except Gaul, Britain, and Spain, 303. Paganism abolished by Theodosius, 394.

# ROMAN EMPERORS OF THE SECOND AND THIRD CENTURIES.

SECOND CENTURY.		THIRD CENTURY—Continued.	
Trajan.....	98 A.D. to 117	Philip the Arabian.....	A.D. 244
Hadrian.....	117	Decius.....	249
Antoninus Pius.....	138	Gallus and his Son.....	251
Marcus Aurelius and L. Verus.....	161	Emilianus.....	253
Commodus.....	180	Valerian and his Son.....	253
Pertinax.....	193	Gallienus.....	260
Severus.....	193	Claudius II.....	268
THIRD CENTURY.		Quintillus.....	270
Caracalla and Geta.....	211	Aurelian.....	270
Macrinus.....	217	Interregnum for nine months.....	275
Heliogabalus.....	218	Tacitus.....	275
Alexander Severus.....	222	Florian.....	276
Maximin.....	235	Probus.....	276
Gordian and his Son.....	237	Carus.....	282
Balbinus and Pupienus.....	237	Carinus and Numerian.....	283
Gordian the Younger.....	238	Diocletian.....	284
		Maximian taken as a colleague.....	286

## CHAPTER IV.

### THE REIGN OF CONSTANTINE THE GREAT.

Central Point: Removal of the Seat of Empire to Constantinople—330 A.D.

British History: Constantine proclaimed Emperor at York—306 A.D.

1. Three chief Points in his Reign.—The reign of Constantine is remarkable in Roman history for three reasons: he was  
(845)

the first emperor who professed Christianity ; he adopted a new policy, in which we can detect foreshadowings of the speedy decay of the Western Empire ; he founded a new capital, thus giving a powerful impulse to that separation of the empire into East and West which had begun under Diocletian in 286, and was completed in 364, when the brothers Valens and Valentinian ruled, the one at Constantinople, the other at Rome.

2. **Birth (274) and early Days.**—Constantine the Great was born at Naissus in Mœsia. His father was Constantius Chlorus (the Sallow), who ruled Gaul, Britain, and Spain ; his mother, Helena, is sometimes described as a British princess, but is generally supposed to have been the daughter of a farmer or an innkeeper.

3. Constantius was required to divorce Helena, as the condition of his being raised to the rank of Cæsar by Diocletian (293). The son shared his mother's fall, and was left at eighteen with little fortune but his sword. Taking service under Diocletian, he fought his way up in Egyptian and Persian wars to the command of a legion ; and so popular did the brave youth become with the soldiers, that Galerius, Emperor of the East, began to look upon him with a jealous eye. Just then he received a message from Constantius, whose health was failing, and who wished to see his long-estranged son. Setting out at night from the East, Constantine hurried to join his father at Boulogne. Together they crossed to Britain, where soon afterwards the father died, at York.

4. **Proclaimed Emperor : 306 A.D.**—Constantine, at once proclaimed emperor by the soldiers of the West, wrote announcing the event to Galerius, who in answer acknowledged him as his father's successor, but conferred on him only the title of *Cæsar*, reserving the higher step, *Augustus*, for a favourite friend. This, no doubt, galled Constantine at the moment ; but, being a man of prudence, he was content to bide his time.

5. **Six Emperors at once : 308 A.D.**—Two years later the world saw a strange sight, without parallel before or since—six emperors dividing the Roman dominions among them. In the West were Maximian, his son Maxentius, and Constantine ;

in the East were Galerius, Licinius, and Maximin. Maximian, once the colleague of Diocletian, had already bestowed on Constantine the hand of his daughter Fausta, and the title of *Augustus*.



CONSTANTINE.

6. **Death of Maximian and Galerius: 312 A.D.**—But among six emperors there could be little harmony. Every man's hand was soon turned against his fellow. The first to die was old Maximian, who, falling into the hands of his son-in-law at Marseilles, was there slain in secret. The death of Galerius, from disease caused by intemperance, reduced the list still further. And then Constantine, with a sword sharpened by six years' successful war in Gaul, crossed the Alps to do battle with the effeminate Maxentius. Susa, at the foot of Mont Cenis, was stormed in a single day. Forty miles farther on, at Turin, he scattered an army strong in mail-clad cavalry. Milan and Verona then fell; and the way to Rome was open.

7. **Death of Maxentius: 312 A.D.**—At Saxa Rubra (the "Red Rocks"), nine miles from Rome, he found the army of Maxentius in line of battle, the Tiber guarding their rear. Constantine led on his Gallic horse, and made short work of the unwieldy masses of cavalry that covered his rival's flanks. The Italian footmen of the centre then fled, almost without striking a blow. Thousands were driven into the Tiber. The brave Prætorians, the emperor's body-guard, despairing of mercy, died in heaps



where they stood. The Milvian Bridge was so choked with flying soldiers, that Maxentius, in trying to struggle through the crowd, was pushed into the water and drowned, held down by his weighty armour.

8. Writers of the time tell us that, before this battle, Constantine saw the vision of a cross hung in the sky, with the Greek words signifying, "In this conquer," written in letters of light. Henceforth his troops marched under a standard called Labarum, the top of which was adorned with a mystic X, representing at once the Cross and the initial letter of the Greek word "Christ."

9. **Death of Maximin : 313 A.D.**—Entering Rome in triumph, he began at once to secure his victory. The Prætorian guards were disbanded, and scattered for ever. The tax, which Maxentius had occasionally levied on the Senate under the name of a free gift, was made lasting. Three of the six emperors now remained—Maximin, Licinius, and Constantine. In a war between the first two, Maximin was defeated near Heraclea, and died in a few months at Tarsus, most likely by poison. Two emperors then shared the power between them—Constantine holding the West, and Licinius the East.

10. A quarrel soon arose between them, as might have been expected from the nature of the men;—Constantine, pushing, clever, and by no means troubled with a tender conscience; Licinius, underhand, artful, dangerous. It made no matter that the sister of Constantine was the wife of Licinius. War was begun. In two battles, Constantine was victorious; and the beaten emperor was compelled to yield, as the price of peace, all his European dominions except Thrace.

11. There was then peace between the rivals for nearly eight years, during which the most notable event was a war with the Goths (322). They had long been mustering on the north bank of the Danube, and now poured their swarms upon Illyricum. But they had to deal with a resolute soldier, who drove them with hard and heavy blows back over the broad stream, and followed them into their strongest holds.

12. **Constantine sole Ruler : 323 A.D. Death of Licinius.**—

Then, in the flush of victory, Constantine turned his sword again upon Licinius. At once all Thrace glittered with arms, and the Hellespont was white with sails. A victory, gained by Constantine at Adrianople, drove the Emperor of the East into Byzantium. Besieged there, he held out a while; but, the passage of the Hellespont having been forced, he fled into Asia, where he was finally vanquished. In spite of his wife's prayers and tears, he was executed a few months later (324); and thus Constantine was left sole master of the Roman world.

13. Influenced perhaps by his mother's early teaching, Constantine favoured Christianity. He did not openly forbid paganism: he chose rather to treat it with ridicule and neglect. Some rites he abolished, and some temples he closed, but only those notorious for fraud or for indecency. Without depressing paganism, he raised the new creed to the level of the old. With public money he repaired old churches and built new ones; so that in every great city the pagan temples were faced by Christian churches of richer and more beautiful architecture. The Christian clergy were freed from taxes. Sunday was proclaimed a day of rest. And, to crown all, he removed the seat of government to a new capital, which was essentially a Christian city.

14. **Council of Nicæa: 325 A.D.**—In the controversies of the Church the emperor took an active but changeable part. He attended in person the first general council of bishops, held at Nicæa, in Bithynia, to decide on the case of Arius, who denied the divinity of Christ. Arius of Alexandria was banished; but three years afterwards, Constantine, who regarded the whole question as one of slight importance, recalled him from exile and wished to restore him to his church.

15. The spot where Byzantium had already stood for more than nine hundred years was chosen as the site of the new capital. While besieging Licinius there, Constantine saw how from that central position a strong hand, wielding the sceptre of the world, could strike east or west with equal suddenness and force. At the southern end of the Bosphorus, a promontory of the Thracian shore runs to within six hundred yards of Asia. It is washed on the south by the Sea of Marmora, and on the north by the

fine harbour of the Golden Horn. Seven hills rise there ; and on these the city was to stand, commanding at once two great continents and two great inland seas. The emperor, spear in hand, heading a long line of nobles, marked out the boundary of the wall. As mile after mile went by, all wondered at the growing space ; yet he went on. "I shall advance," said he, "till the invisible guide who marches before me thinks right to stop."

**16. Building of Constantinople: 330 A.D.**—Gold without stint was lavished on the new buildings. Bronzes and marbles, wrought by the foremost sculptors, were stolen from Greece and Asia to adorn the public walks. When those senators whom the gifts and invitations of the emperor had induced to remove from Rome reached the shores of the Bosphorus, they found waiting to receive them palaces built exactly after the model of those they had left behind. On the day of dedication, the city received the name of New Rome ; but this title was soon exchanged for that borne ever since—Constantinople. One result of this great change, which reduced Rome to a second-rate city, was to concentrate for a time in the old capital, more intensely than ever, all the bitterness of paganism. Constantinople, on the other hand, was a Christian city, and it soon became the chief centre of Greek learning and Greek culture. It became also in time the capital of a separate empire, which survived the old for nearly a thousand years.

**17. Constantine's new Policy: three Features.**—The new policy of Constantine was marked by three chief features. (1.) He scattered titles of nobility with an unsparing hand, so that there was no end of "Illustrious," "Respectable," "Most Honourable," "Most Perfect," "Egregious" men about the court. The Asiatic fashion of piling up epithets to make swelling names of honour became the rage. On every side was heard, "Your Gravity," or "Your Sincerity," or "Your Sublime and Wonderful Magnitude." (2.) He laid direct and heavier taxes on the people. Forty millions were poured into his treasury every year. These taxes, paid chiefly in gold, but also in kind, were collected by magistrates, who, if there was

any deficiency, were compelled to make it up out of their own property. (3.) In the army great and fatal changes were made. The military service was separated from the civil government, and placed under the direction of eight Masters-General. The famous legions were broken up into small bands. Numbers of Goths and other barbarians were enlisted in the Roman service, and taught to use arms, which they afterwards turned against their masters. A distinction was also made between the troops of the court and the troops of the frontier. The latter, bearing all the hard blows, received but scanty rewards; while the former, rejoicing in high pay, and living in cities among baths and theatres, speedily lost all courage and skill.

18. The last years of Constantine were occupied with a successful war against the Goths, undertaken in aid of the Sarmatians. Three hundred thousand of the latter nation were settled under Roman protection in Thrace and Macedonia, no doubt to serve as a rampart against the encroachments of other tribes.

19. **Death of Constantine: 337 A.D.**—Constantine died at Nicomedia, aged sixty-four. He is said to have been baptized on his death-bed by an Arian bishop. According to his own last request, his body was carried to Constantinople; and while it lay there on a golden bed, a poor mockery of kingship, crowned and robed in purple, every day, at the usual hour of levee, the great officers of State came to bow before the lifeless clay. When we strip away the tinsel with which Eusebius and similar writers have decked the character of this man, we are forced to believe that there was little about him that was grand or heroic, except his military skill. He slew his father-in-law; and, in later days, meanly jealous of justly-won laurels, he hurried his eldest son from a gay feast in Rome, to die by a secret and sudden death. Many of his strokes of policy were terrible blunders, full of future ruin; and his boasted profession of Christianity seems to have been scarcely better than a mere pretence, made to serve the aims of an unrelenting and unscrupulous ambition.

## NOTES.

§ 3. *Cæsar*, a title equivalent to Lieutenant, Emperor, or vice-Augustus.

7. *Milvian Bridge*, one of the eight bridges across the Tiber at Rome.

8. Greek words, *Ἐν τοῦτω πλκα.*

Greek word for Christ, *Χριστός.*

18. *Sarmatians*. The Sarmatians were a Slavonic people. Sarmatia corresponded to the modern Poland, and part of southern Russia.

**SUMMARY.**—306 A.D. On the death of his father Constantius, Constantine was proclaimed Emperor of the West. He was at first one of six emperors among whom the Roman Empire was divided;—in the West, Maximian, Maxentius, and Constantine; in the East, Galerius, Licinius, and Maximin.—312. Maximian died, and Constantine, having defeated Maxentius, entered Rome in triumph. Soon Licinius was left sole ruler in the East.—324. Licinius was vanquished by Constantine, who then remained complete master in the Roman world. Constantine favoured Christianity.—325. The first Church council was held at Nicea.—330. The emperor removed his capital to Byzantium, called after him Constantinople.

## ROMAN EMPERORS OF THE FOURTH CENTURY.

Constantius and Galerius .....	A.D. 305
Constantine the Great.....	306
Constantine sole Emperor.....	324
Constantine II., Constans, and Constantius II. ....	337
Julian (the Apostate).....	361
Jovian.....	363

WEST.		EAST.	
Valentinian .....	A.D. 364	Valens.....	A.D. 364
Gratian.....	367	Theodosius.....	379
Valentinian II. ....	375	Arcadius.....	395
Honorius. ....	395		

## CHAPTER V.

## • THE TEUTONIC MIGRATIONS.

**Central Point:** Settlement of Goths south of the Danube—376 A.D.

**British History:** Roman Britain harassed by the Saxons by sea, and the Picts and Scots by land—364 A.D.

1. **The Aryan Races.**—The vast majority of the peoples of Europe belong to a single great family or stock, called the Aryan. It used to be supposed that the original home of the Aryans was in Central Asia, and that different tribes of the race migrated thence in different directions at wide intervals

of time. There are now good grounds for believing that the Aryan home or focus was in Europe, in the east of the Germanic plain. There is no doubt, however, that the Aryan races have spread by migration and conquest over south-western Asia as well as over the south and the west of Europe. Hence the name Indo-European sometimes given to them.

**2. Order of the Aryan Migrations.**—When these migrations took place is not known, for they occurred long before the historic era; that is, before men began to keep written records of their doings. Nothing is known but the leading facts, and these have been ascertained by comparing the languages and the manners and customs of the different races. There are thus good grounds for believing that the Celts were the earliest Aryans that settled in Europe; of which there is proof in the fact that when the era of history opened they were found farthest west—in Britain, in Gaul, and in Spain. After them came the Greeks and the Latins, who occupied the south of Europe, and who surpassed all the other European Aryans in literature and the arts of civilized life. The Teutons followed the Celts in Northern Europe, driving them steadily westward, but at what interval of time is a matter of mere conjecture. Lastly came the Slavs or Sarmatians, who peopled the north-east.

**3.** The continuous flow of these barbaric tribes westward and southward, under the ceaseless pressure of new immigrants from the east—their mingling and blending with one another, and with the old populations of the lands into which they poured—formed the power by which the Western Empire was broken up, and by which its fragments were wrought into the curious mosaic of mediæval and modern Europe.

**4. The Teutonic Tribes: the Goths.**—The chief Teutonic tribes were the Goths, the Franks, the Vandals, the Lombards, the Angles, the Saxons, and the Scandinavians. The earliest home of the Goths in Europe was Scandinavia, where we can still mark their dwelling-places by such words as Godoland, and, plainer still, Gothland. But the roving spirit natural to barbarism would not let these blue-eyed giants, hardened by



THE TEUTONIC MIGRATIONS.

the breezes of the North, rest content with their native swamps and forests. They began to push southward about 200 A.D.; and we soon find them in Central Europe in three great divisions,—Visigoths (West-Goths), Ostrogoths (East-Goths), and Gepidae (Laggards). They were the most civilized of the Teutonic tribes; and are further remarkable for having adopted Christianity (though in the corrupt Arian form) as their national religion, not only earlier than their brother savages, but even earlier than the Greeks and the Romans.

**5. The Romans and the Celts.**—The conflict between the Romans and the other Aryan races of Europe began in the

time of Julius Cæsar, who conquered the Celts of Gaul, and the Germans on the left bank of the Rhine. He also tried to conquer the Celts of Britain; but failed. That conquest had to be postponed for a hundred years, when it was accomplished in the time of the early Roman emperors—Claudius, Vespasian, Hadrian, and Antoninus. The Roman conquests of Gaul and Britain brought these northern nations under the influence of the southern civilization, and laid the foundation of their modern history.

**6. The Romans and the Germans on the Rhine.**—Cæsar also crossed the Rhine into Germany; but he failed to make any conquests there. The conflict with the Germans was resumed in the time of Augustus: Two step-sons of that emperor, Drusus and Tiberius, waged wars with the Germans beyond the Rhine which lasted many years. Drusus marched his armies to the Weser and the Elbe, but died on his way back. Tiberius compelled the Germans on the right bank of the Rhine to acknowledge the supremacy of Rome. Sixteen years later, three Roman legions under Quinctilius Varus were annihilated by the German leader Hermann (called by the Romans Arminius), and all hope of making Germany a Roman province was extinguished (9 A.D.). Had it been otherwise, it is probable that the course of events which made the Goths the instrument that overthrew the Western Empire would have been materially changed.

**7. The Struggle transferred to the Danube.**—When next the empire came into conflict with the Germans—namely, in the reigns of Trajan and Marcus Aurelius—it was not on the Rhine, but on the Danube, where the barbarians were known as Goths. The wars, too, were no longer offensive, but were defensive. Their purpose was not to make new conquests, but to protect the conquests that had been made from the attacks of the hordes that were threatening the empire. Trajan had conquered Dacia (north of the Danube) in 107; but Claudius II., in 270, though he gained a great victory over the Goths, prudently gave it up and retired to the southern bank of the Danube.



8. **Reign of Constantine.**—The final struggle with the Goths began in the time of Constantine. In fixing his capital at Byzantium, that emperor recognized the fact that the most dangerous enemies of the empire were now in the East and not in the West, and that in the East, therefore, the struggle would have to be fought out. At that time the Goths were settled in the south-east of Europe—the West Goths in Dacia, and the East Goths in the south of Russia, the river Dnieper being the dividing line between them. About this time Christianity was preached among the Goths by an Arian bishop named Wulfila (Ulphilas), whose translation of the Scriptures into Mæso-Gothic is the oldest writing in existence in any Teutonic tongue. The Vandals were then the most powerful people in the north of Germany, and they were pressing southward on the Goths. On the east, the Goths were being hard pressed by the Huns, a Mongolian people who had come originally from China, and who had lately swept into Europe like a whirlwind. These were the peoples—Goths, Vandals, and Huns—that took the chief part in the overthrow of the Empire of the West.

9. **Gothic Settlement in Mæsia: 376 A.D.**—The increasing pressure of the Huns forced the West Goths to cross the Danube in the time of Constantine, with the view of settling in Illyricum, on the east of the Adriatic. Constantine, as we have seen, defeated them, and drove them back again within their former confines. That checked their advance for a time, but only for a time. It was inevitable that it should be renewed. The opportunity came when the administration of the empire was divided (364) between Valens and Valentinian. While Valens ruled the East, the Huns once more fell upon the East Goths, slew their leader, and in union with these drove the West Goths back upon the Danube. In despair, the West Goths flung themselves on the pity of Valens, asking leave, in the humblest terms, to place the Danube between them and their terrible foes. Leave was granted, on condition that they should give up their children and their arms. The bargain was struck at once; Roman boats were provided; and for many days and nights the broad river was torn into foam by

the splash of unceasing oars. The fugitives, surrendering their children with little concern, gladly paid away all they had as bribes to the Roman officers, for leave to keep their arms; and so nearly a million of fierce and hungry warriors settled sword in hand in Mœsia, within one of the great natural frontiers of the empire.

**10. Death of Valens.**—Two years afterwards, a West Gothic army under Fridigern, one of their judges or leaders, penetrated Thrace, and inflicted a severe defeat on the troops of Valens near Adrianople. The emperor himself, carried bleeding to a cottage close by, was there burned by these remorseless foes.

**11. Theodosius.**—Theodosius, a Spaniard by birth, became emperor in 379. Invested by Gratian with the purple of the East, he set himself at once to repel the inroads of the Goths. In four campaigns, by timely movements from his head-quarters at Thessalonica, he broke—for the time at least—the strength of these barbarians. The leading aim of his policy was to preserve unbroken the great frontier line naturally marked out as the boundary of the empire by Mount Caucasus, the Black Sea, the Danube, and the Rhine. He was the first Roman emperor who was baptized in the Trinitarian faith; and is further remarkable for having put down, by rigorous laws, the last remnants of paganism, and also the Arian heresy, of which Constantinople was the chief seat. He died at Milan in 395.

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#### NOTES.

§ 1. **A'ryan.** The name is supposed to be derived from a Sanskrit word, meaning "excellent," "honourable."

8. **Wulfila**, born about 318 A.D.; died at Constantinople toward the end of the fourth century.

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**SUMMARY.**—The present inhabitants of Europe belong almost entirely to the Aryan family, which had its home in Central Asia. Offshoots from this stock spread into Europe; of these the Celts were the first to migrate, then the Greeks and Latins, then the Teutons, then the Slavs. The chief Teutonic tribes were the Goths, the Franks, the Vandals, the Lombards, the Angles, the Saxons, and the Scandinavians. The Romans conquered the Celts of Gaul and Britain, and subdued the Germans on the right bank of the Rhine. The West Goths effected a settlement in Mœsia; but, being hard pressed by the Huns, they asked the protection of the Emperor Valens. Two years later a West-Gothic army defeated the troops of Valens, and slew the emperor himself. Theodosius, the next emperor, broke for a time the strength of the Goths.

## CHAPTER VI.

*THE FALL OF THE WESTERN EMPIRE.*

**Central Point:** The Sack of Rome by Alaric the Goth—410 A.D.

**British History:** The Roman Legions withdrawn from Britain—410 A.D.

Settlement of Hengest and Horsa in Kent—449 A.D.

1. **The two Empires; East and West: 395 A.D.**—Arcadius and Honorius, the feeble sons of Theodosius, divided the empire between them. That which had been an occasional division of one empire into two administrations now became a permanent division into two empires. Arcadius, a youth of



EASTERN AND WESTERN EMPIRES.

eighteen, became Emperor of the Eastern or Byzantine Empire. Honorius, a boy of eleven, became nominal ruler of the Western or Roman Empire; the real power being in the hands of Stilicho, a Vandal, who was raised to the rank of Master-General, and who was intrusted with the guardianship of the youthful emperor.

2. **Revolt of the West Goths.**—The death of Theodosius was the signal for the revolt of the West Goths in Mœsia and Thrace, who were now ruled by the brave and artful Alaric. Starting from Thrace in the summer of 395, Alaric swept over the fertile plains of Macedonia and overran all Greece. Stilicho was sent to oppose him, and succeeded in surrounding his army; but the wily Goth escaped into Epirus, where he was hoisted on a shield by his soldiers, according to their national mode of electing a king. There, too, he received from Arcadius, who was jealous of Stilicho, the title of Master-General of Eastern Illyricum.

3. **Alaric in Italy: 402 A.D.**—Alaric's next move was on northern Italy. Honorius fled from Milan, where he had fixed his court, to Ravenna, and would have been captured there but for the rapid advance of Stilicho. The Goths, beaten at Pollentia, left Italy for a time.

4. **First Siege of Rome by Alaric: 408 A.D.**—Six years later, they marched unopposed to the very walls of Rome. Stilicho, the only match for Alaric, had just been murdered by his senseless master. Famine and plague raged within the city, and it seemed as if nothing could save it. At length, the Gothic king agreed to accept a ransom, and retired to Tuscany, loaded with all the gold, silver, silk, scarlet cloth, and pepper that could be gathered in Rome.

5. **Sack of Rome: 410 A.D.**—Honorius, secure in Ravenna, refused to save Rome by any concessions; and the Goths, seizing Ostia, at the Tiber's mouth, again summoned the capital to surrender. A second siege was averted by the citizens agreeing to acknowledge as emperor Attalus, the prefect of the city, who was nominated by Alaric. But this puppet ruler was soon degraded by the same strong hand that had set him up. Then, a band of Goths having been cut to pieces near Ravenna, the storm, which had long been gathering, at length burst over Rome. In the dead of night, hostile trumpets blew for the first time in her sleeping streets. After six terrible days of bloodshed and pillage, the baggage waggons of Alaric went creaking southward along the Appian Way, piled high with the richest

spoils of Rome. All southern Italy was soon subdued; but before the conquering hordes could pass into Sicily, their leader died in Calabria. To make his grave, a river was turned aside; and when the water again flowed into its bed, the prisoners who had built his tomb were slain, that no one might be able to tell where the conqueror of Rome was laid.

**6. Rise of modern Kingdoms.**—Now the great Western Empire was dissolving fast. Early in the fifth century three branches broke off from the decaying trunk, not to die, but to start up with new life into three great kingdoms of modern Europe. Spain was conquered by Sueves, Alans, and Vandals. Gaul was filled with Goths, Burgundians, and Franks. Britain was left to itself, the Roman legions having been recalled to help in the defence of Rome against the Goths. The way was thus prepared for the settlement of the Angles and the Saxons, and for the founding of the English nation.

**7. Genseric the Vandal in Africa: 429 A.D.**—Africa, too, was lost to the empire. Boniface, the Roman general in Africa, revolted from Valentinian III. at the instigation of his rival Aëtius. He called Genseric and his Vandals over from Spain, where they had gone in 409. Having crossed the Strait of Gibraltar in Spanish vessels, the barbarian leader reviewed a motley force of fifty thousand on the plains of Mauritania. Vandals, Alans, Goths, were all there. Tawny Moors, who at first had looked on the white faces with fear, gradually joined their ranks. Boniface, repenting only when it was too late, returned to his allegiance; but he saw with dismay all the rich wheat-fields, on which Rome depended mainly for her bread, laid waste from Tangier to Tripoli. In its extremity, the Western Empire appealed to the Eastern for help, and a fleet was sent from Constantinople to the African coast. But all was of no avail. In 431 Hippo Regius, a sea-port now called Bona, was burned, and Boniface, sailing to Italy, fell in battle with Aëtius. Carthage yielded to Genseric in 439; and there a Vandal kingdom was founded, which lasted for two centuries and a half.

**8. Attila the Hun.**—Meanwhile Attila, a genuine Hun with swarthy face and strong square frame, had gone forth from his

wooden palace on the steppes of the Euxine at the head of half a million savages, to conquer the world. Westward to the Rhine, northward to the Baltic, eastward far beyond the Caspian, the terror of his name spread fast; and ere long we find him in the suburbs of Constantinople, dictating insulting terms of peace to the trembling Theodosius II. (446). A year or two later, after the Huns had gone home, an embassy was sent over the Danube by the court of Constantinople to visit Attila. Among the envoys was an assassin, secretly charged to murder the royal Hun; and this was the real business of the embassy. Though the treacherous design was detected, the ambassadors were entertained with barbaric splendour, and the would-be murderer was dismissed with contempt.

**9. Battle of Chalons: 451 A.D.**—In 450, Attila sent to each of the emperors the haughty message, "Attila commands thee to prepare a palace for his reception." Marcian, Emperor of the East, from whom arrears of tribute were also demanded, replied with spirit, "I have gold for my friends, and steel for my enemies." And so the Hun, preferring to begin with the easier task, fell upon the West. Honoria, a disgraced sister of Valentinian, maddened by her tedious banishment to Constantinople, had before this sent him a ring, praying him to claim her as his wife, and set her free. Seizing this pretext, he demanded in her name half of the Western Empire; which was of course refused. Then gathering his Huns around him, he crossed the Rhine, pierced to the centre of Gaul, and began to shake the walls of Orleans with his battering-rams. Terror filled the town, until clouds of dust on the horizon marked the quick advance of a Roman and Gothic army under Aëtius and Theodoric King of the West Goths. Attila retreated at once to the plain of Chalons; and there was fought one of the decisive battles of the world, resulting in the defeat of the Huns. Theodoric fell in the battle. This victory settled two things that affected the history of the world—the predominance of the Aryan civilization and the supremacy of Christianity in Europe. If the Huns had been victorious, the course of European history would probably have been changed.

10. **Attila's March on Rome.**—Undismayed by this check, Attila climbed the Alps, and poured his flood of barbarians on the plains of Italy. Aquileia and other cities were laid in heaps. Milan and Pavia were robbed, but were left standing; and when the Hun was preparing to march on Rome, Bishop Leo came with offers from the emperor to give up the required dowry or its value in money. Awe-struck by the majesty of the priest, and remembering, no doubt, that his soldiers were becoming unstrung by the luxury of Italian life, and that the active Aetius was threatening him at every move, he agreed to return to the north. There soon afterwards he died, by the breaking of a blood vessel. Such was the end of the restless warrior who rejoiced in the title of "the Scourge of God," and whose savage boast it was that grass never grew on a spot where his horse had trodden (453). His great empire, torn by intestine wars, and pressed on by fresh hordes of barbarians, then fell to pieces.

11. **Rome pillaged by Genseric: 455 A.D.**—While Attila was threatening Rome on the north, Genseric, who was in alliance with the Hun, had cut down the woods of Mount Atlas, and built a fleet. Sweeping the Mediterranean, he conquered Sicily, and made frequent descents on the Italian coasts. In 455, at the invitation of Eudoxia, who had been forced to marry Maximus, the murderer and successor of her former husband Valentinian III., he cast anchor at the mouth of the Tiber. While the Vandals were advancing from Ostia to Rome, Bishop Leo, remembering his influence over Attila, went out to meet them at the head of his clergy. But this device could not save the city now. For fourteen days Vandals and Moors wrecked and pillaged without mercy. Exquisite bronzes were melted; glorious works of sculpture and architecture were wantonly dashed to pieces. Ship-loads of treasure and crowds of captives were carried over the sea to Carthage.

12. **Close of Ancient History: 476 A.D.**—Why should we dwell on the sad story? For sixteen years (456–472) all real power rested with Ricimer, an officer of the German mercenaries in the Roman army, who during that time set up four emperors in succession, but kept the real power in his own

hands. In 472, forty days before his death, Ricimer sacked Rome. Other three inglorious names were added to the roll of emperors, that of Romulus Augustulus closing the list. He was a handsome youth, but he was nothing more; and when Odoacer, a Goth of the tribe Heruli, at the head of the Italian soldiers, threatened him in Ravenna, he yielded ignobly, content to retire to his villa with a pension of 6,000 pieces of gold. He was deposed by the Senate, which declared the Western Empire at an end. By a formal letter to Zeno, the Eastern emperor, the Senate transferred the supreme authority from Rome to Constantinople, which retained its imperial dignity till 1453. Odoacer ruled in Italy, not as a king, but as patricius of Rome and prefect of the Eastern emperor. With this event the period of Ancient History, properly so called, came to an end.

**13. Causes of the Fall of Rome.**—It has been supposed that the division of the empire into Eastern and Western was the chief cause of the fall of Rome. That, however, was itself a result of causes which lay deeper. One of these was the wide extension of the empire, and its unwieldy weight, which required that it should be ruled by men of unusual power, like Marcus Aurelius and Constantine. Another cause was the growing strength of the barbaric races that pressed on the borders of the empire. Their encroachments deprived Rome of the sources both of its wealth and of its men. The prosperity of Rome rested not on industry, but on conquest. When she ceased to conquer, and still more when she gave up to Goths and Vandals the conquests she had made, she lost the means of support. Her life-blood was drawn from the extremities, and when these were cut off the supply ceased, and the action of the heart was first weakened and then stopped altogether. While the growing provincial populations were being withdrawn from Rome, the Roman population itself dwindled from the want of the means of subsistence. Further, the increased pressure of taxation on the lower classes, and the growth of luxury among the higher, served to accelerate the great catastrophe.



**14. The Romance Nations and Languages.**—From the fragments of the empire new nations arose, in which Roman and Teutonic elements were mixed. The Teutons being the less numerous, and also the less civilized, were gradually absorbed in the Roman population, and adopted their customs, their laws, and their language, modified in each case by well-marked peculiarities belonging to the conquerors. To the nations and languages thus formed the general name of Romance or Roman has been given, on account of their resemblance to one another and of their common origin. Their points of difference led to the distinctive features of Italian, Spanish, Provençal in the south of Gaul, and Frankish or French in the north. These were the races and countries through which the old Roman genius and civilization were handed on to modern Europe.

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#### NOTES.

- § 1. **Stilicho.** His daughter Maria was married to the Emperor Honorius.  
 2. **Al'ario.** He was descended from a noble Gothic family, and served for some years in the Roman armies.  
 5. **Appian Way,** the most ancient of the Roman roads. It led in a south-easterly direction from the city.  
 7. **Vandal kingdom.** See map, p. 65.  
 12. **Odoacer** (*Odoä'ker*); German name, *Odova'ker*.—**Patricius**, lord.

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**SUMMARY.**—395 A.D. The empire was divided between the two sons of Theodosius: Arcadius became emperor of the Eastern division, and Honorius emperor of the Western.—408. The West Goths, under Alaric, rose up and besieged Rome; but Alaric accepted a ransom, and retired to Tuscany.—410. Rome was sacked by the Goths for six days. Three great kingdoms arose on the ruins of the empire—Spain, Gaul, and Britain.—429–439. Genserik founded a Vandal kingdom in the north of Africa.—451. Attila the Hun was defeated by the Romans and Goths at Chalons. He made a march on Rome, but was induced to return to Hungary.—455. Rome was pillaged by Vandals and Moors.—476. Romulus Augustulus, the last of the Roman emperors, was deposed. This event marks the close of Ancient History.

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#### THE LAST EMPERORS OF ROME.

<b>Honorius</b> .....	A.D. 395–423	<b>Anthemius</b> .....	A.D. 467
<b>Valentinian III</b> .....	425	<b>Olybius</b> .....	472
<b>Maximus</b> .....	455	<b>Glycerius</b> .....	473
<b>Avitus</b> .....	456	<b>Julius Nepos</b> .....	474
<b>Majorian</b> .....	457	<b>Romulus Augustulus</b> .....	475–76
<b>Libius Severus</b> .....	461		

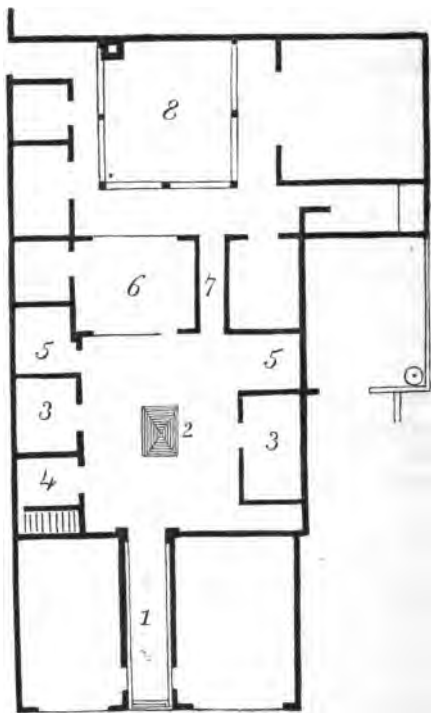
## CHAPTER VII.

*DOMESTIC LIFE IN IMPERIAL ROME.*

1. **A Roman House.**—The principal apartments of a Roman house were on the ground floor. Passing through the unroofed *vestibule*, often between rows of graceful statues, a visitor entered the house through a doorway ornamented with ivory, tortoise-shell, and gold. On the threshold, worked in mosaic marble, was the kind word, *Salve* (God save you!); while behind the door, where the porter sat, was a dog, or its picture, with the warning, *Cave canem* (Beware of the dog). Then came the *atrium* (hall), or great central reception-room, separated from its *alae* or wings by lines of pillars. Here were placed the ancestral images; and here, too, was the *focus* (hearth), a family fireplace dedicated to the Lares (household gods). In the centre of this, or perhaps of an inner hall, was a cistern (*impluvium*), into which the rain plashed through an opening in the roof. Right and left of the hall were guest-chambers and the principal sleeping-rooms. Beyond the hall was the *tablinum*, in which the family records and other manuscripts were preserved, and which therefore served the purposes of a charter-room and library. Farther in still lay a large saloon or court called the *peristyle* (place surrounded with columns), often with a garden in the middle of it; while smaller rooms for eating and sleeping were placed according to fancy or convenience. The floor, though sometimes boarded, was generally covered with stone, or marble, or mosaics. The walls, whitewashed in the old simple days of the early Republic, were in the time of the Empire covered with marble slabs or with paintings, or glittered with costly mirrors; gilt and coloured stucco-work adorned the ceilings; while the window-frames were filled with talc or glass. On the roofs were gardens, bright with leaf and blossom.

2. **Furniture.**—In houses such as that described might be found ivory bedsteads, with quilts of purple and gold; tables of precious wood—cedar, citron, or cypress—supported on marble pedestals; sideboards of gold and silver, loaded with plate, amber vases,

beakers of Corinthian bronze, and glass vessels from Alexandria, rivalling in their tints the opal and the ruby.



PLAN OF A ROMAN HOUSE.

- |   |                          |
|---|--------------------------|
| 1. Ostium—Entrance.                       | 5. Alae—Wings, recesses. |
| 2. Atrium—Hall, with Impluvium in centre. | 6. Tablinum—Library.     |
| 3. Guest-chambers.                        | 7. Fauces—Passage.       |
| 4. Room with staircase leading upward.    | 8. Peristyle—Open court. |

**3. Slaves.**—The household work was done by slaves of various classes. In earlier times a few sufficed ; but in the days of the Empire it was thought a disgrace not to have a slave for every separate kind of work. And so, besides those who managed the purse, the cellar, the bed-rooms, and the kitchen, there were slaves to carry the litter, and to attend their masters when

they walked abroad. Some, of higher pretensions, were physicians, secretaries, and readers. Then, for amusement, there were musicians, dancers, and buffoons. But all may be ranked under two heads—bought slaves, and born slaves. There was a slave-market, in which those of the common sort were sold like cattle; but the more beautiful or valuable were disposed of by private bargain in the taverns. Prices ranged from £4 to £800 a head.

4. **Male Dress.**—The most remarkable garment of the Romans was the *toga*, made of pure white wool, and in shape resembling a segment of a circle. Narrow at first, it was folded so that one arm rested as in a sling; but in later days it was draped in broad, flowing folds, round the breast and left arm, leaving the right nearly bare. Though its use in the streets was in later times exchanged for a mantle of warm, coloured cloth, called *pallium* (a cloak), or *lacerna* (an overcoat), yet it continued to be the Roman full-dress; and in the theatre, when the emperor was present, all were expected to wear it. The later emperors wore *braccæ*, or loose trowsers tied about the ankle—a fashion borrowed from the barbarians. These were commonly crimson; but Alexander Severus wore white ones. The Romans always kept the head uncovered, except on a journey, or when they wished to escape notice. Then they wore a dark-coloured hood, which was fastened to the *lacerna*. In the house *soleæ* (sandals) were strapped to the bare feet; but abroad the *calceus*, nearly resembling our shoe, was commonly worn. On the gold-finger, the fourth of the left hand, every Roman of rank had a massive signet-ring.



THE TOGA.

5. **Female Dress.**—The dress of Roman ladies consisted of three parts—the inner *tunic*, the *stola*, and the *palla*. The *stola* (gown), which was the distinctive dress of Roman matrons, was

a tunic with short sleeves, girt round the waist, and ending in a deep flounce, which swept the instep. The *palla* (mantle), a



ROMAN SANDALS.

gay-coloured mantle, was worn out of doors. It was often made of blue cloth, sprinkled with golden stars. The brightest colours were chosen; so that an assembly of Roman *belles* in full dress was a brilliant scene, sparkling with many colours. The hair, encircled with a garland of roses, was fastened with a gold pin. Pearls and gold adorned the neck and arms. A favourite bracelet was a golden serpent

with ruby eyes, such as may be seen on many a white arm in modern drawing-rooms.

6. **Meals and Food.**—To many, in the degenerate ages of Rome, the great end of life was to eat the most delicious food, and to eat as much of it as possible. Gluttony had grown upon the people from their intercourse with Asia. Roman meals were three—*jentaculum*, *prandium*, and *coena*. *Jentaculum* (breakfast), taken at a very early hour—probably about four in the morning—and chiefly by children and delicate or luxurious persons, consisted of bread, dried grapes or olives, cheese, and perhaps milk and eggs. At *prandium* (luncheon), taken about twelve or one o'clock, they partook of fish, eggs, and dishes cold or warmed up from the previous night's dinner. Then, too, some wine was drunk. But *coena* (dinner or supper) was the principal meal, taken about three o'clock, but often much later. It began with eggs, fish, and light vegetables, such as radishes and lettuces—tasty dishes intended to whet the appetite for the more substantial dishes to follow. Then came the courses, of which, in all their wonderful variety, no just idea can be given here. Among fish, turbot, sturgeon, and red mullet were greatly prized; among birds, the peacock, pheasant, woodcock, thrush, and fig-pecker. The favourite flesh-meat was young

pork ; but venison was also in great demand. The courses were followed by a dessert of pastry and fruit.

7. **Manner of Eating.**—While eating, the Romans reclined on low couches, which, with the tables, were arranged in the form *triclinium*, making three sides of a square. The open space was left to enable the slaves to place or to remove the dishes. The place of honour was on the middle bench. In later times round tables became common, and then semi-circular couches were used. Before reclining on the couch, the guests removed their shoes, so as not to soil its ivory-work or its cloth of gold. There were no table-cloths ; but each guest wore over the breast a linen napkin. (*mappa*), which he brought with him. Instead of knives and forks two spoons were used ; one small and pointed at the end of the handle ; the other larger and of uncertain shape. The splendour of a Roman feast was often marred by the smoke of the oil-lamps, the only light then used in rich men's houses, candles being confined to those of the lower classes. The lamps themselves were exquisite in shape and material, as were all the table utensils.

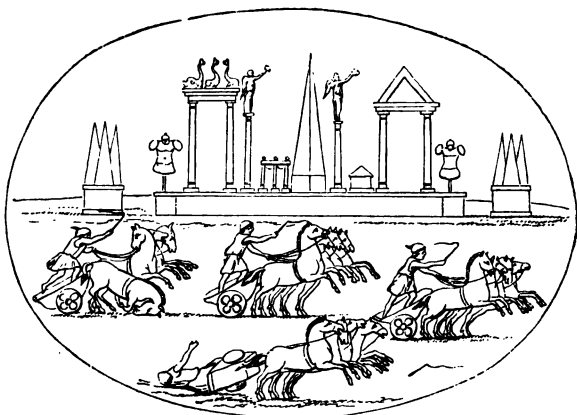
8. **Wine.**—Wine was almost the only drink used, but it was generally mixed with water. Before being brought to table it was strained through a sieve. It was called black or white according to its colour, just as we talk of red and white wines. The famous Falernian was of a bright amber tint. Besides pure wine they drank *mulsum*, a mixture of new wine with honey ; and *calda*, a kind of negus, made of hot water, wine, and spice.

9. **Baths.**—The Romans spent much time in their splendid baths. The cold plunge in the Tiber, which had braced the iron muscles of their ancestors, gave place, under the Empire, to a most luxurious and elaborate system of tepid and vapour bathing, often repeated seven or eight times a day. At the baths the gossip of the day was exchanged, as was done in English coffee-houses a hundred years ago, and as is now done in our clubs and news-rooms.

10. **Travelling.**—Their many slaves enabled the Romans to travel luxuriously. The favourite conveyance was a wooden palanquin (*lectica*) with leathern curtains, within which the

traveller lay on soft mattress and pillows. They had cabs and carriages—as many, if not so elegant, as ours; and there was no want of hack vehicles and post-horses. Inns were used chiefly by the lower classes; for, except in cases of necessity, wealthy travellers lodged at the houses of private friends.

11. **Chariot Races.**—The theatre with its tragedies and comedies, the circus, and the amphitheatre, supplied the Romans with their chief public amusements. At the circus they betted on their favourite horses or charioteers; at the amphitheatre they revelled in the bloody combats of gladiators. Four chariots generally started together. The drivers, distinguished by dresses



CHARIOT RACE.

of different colours, stood in the cars, leaning back, with the reins passed round their bodies, and a sharp knife in the belt to cut the thong if anything went wrong. On they whirled amid clouds of dust, seven times round the course, shaving the goal amid the thunders of the excited crowd. A large sum of money was generally the prize.

12. **Gladiators.**—The most brutal of all Roman pastimes were the gladiatorial combats. At the trumpet's sound throngs of wretched men—captives, slaves, or convicted criminals—closed in deadly strife. The trodden sand soon grew red with blood;

yet on they fought with parched lips and leaping hearts, for they knew that a brave fight might win for them their freedom. Ere long bleeding limbs began to fail, and dim eyes turned to seek for mercy along the crowded seats. There were times when the dumb prayer was answered, and the spectators gave the signal for sparing life by pressing down their thumbs; but too often mercy was sought in vain, and the sword completed its work. Combats of gladiators with wild beasts often took place. Whole armies sometimes thronged the arena. When Trajan triumphed after his victories in Dacia, ten thousand gladiators were exhibited at once. Another great public sight was the triumph of a victor. And here, too, blood must stream, else the pageant lost its zest. When the glittering files reached the slope of Capitolinus, the conquered leaders were led aside and slain.

13. **In-door Games.**—Among many games of exercise, playing at ball was a favourite. Within doors, much time and money were squandered at dice. Other more innocent amusements were various board-games, depending chiefly on skill, and resembling a good deal chess and backgammon.

14. **Books and Letters.**—Roman books were rolls of papyrus-bark or parchment, written upon with a reed pen, dipped in lampblack or in sepia. The back of the sheet was often stained with saffron, and its edges were rubbed smooth and blackened, while the ends of the stick on which it was rolled were adorned with knobs of ivory or of gilt wood. Letters were etched with a sharp iron instrument (*stilus*) on thin wooden tablets, coated with wax. These were then tied up with linen thread, the knot being sealed with wax and stamped with a ring.

15. **Marriage.**—In the Roman marriage ceremony, the bride, dressed in a white robe with purple fringe, and covered with a bright yellow veil, was conducted by her friends to her future home. A lighted torch of white thorn was carried before her; and she herself carried a distaff and spindle, with wool. Arrived at the flower-wreathed portal, she was lifted over the threshold, lest—omen of evil—her foot might stumble on it. Her husband then brought fire and water, which she touched; and seated on



a sheepskin, she received the keys of the house. A marriage supper closed the ceremony, but certain religious rites were performed the next day.

**16. Funeral Rites.**—Great pomp marked the funeral rites of the nobler Romans. The bier was preceded by a long procession of trumpeters, female dirge-singers, and even buffoons, all clad in black. It was only under the later emperors that white became the fashion for female mourning. When a funeral oration was delivered, the bier was set down, under the *rostra* (platform) in the *Forum* (market-place), and then the gloomy procession wound slowly on to the burial-place. When, as was common in earlier times, the body was burned, the ashes were carefully gathered, and preserved in an urn; but in later days the custom of burying in a coffin was more frequently followed.

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#### NOTES.

§ 1. *Lares*. Supposed to be derived from *lar*, an Etruscan word meaning "lord" or "hero."

*Talc*, a mineral of a greenish-white colour; separable into thin transparent flakes.

4. *Calceus*, literally a cover for the heel (Lat. *calx*).

12. *Capitolinus*, one of the "seven hills" of Rome. On it was situated the Temple of Jupiter.

14. *Se'pia*, a brown pigment made from the gall of the cuttle-fish—India or China ink.

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**SUMMARY.**—A Roman house in the time of the Empire was furnished in an elegant and costly manner. In ordinary articles of furniture, precious metals and ornamental woods were much used. The household work was done by slaves. The *toga* was the principal garment of the Roman men; trowsers were worn by the later emperors. The *stola* was the distinctive dress of Roman matrons. The Romans had three meals—breakfast, luncheon, and dinner or supper: while eating, they reclined on couches. Tepid and vapour baths were much used. Chariot-races and gladiatorial combats were favourite pastimes. Various board-games, like chess and backgammon, were played in-doors. Roman books were rolls of papyrus-bark or parchment, written upon with a reed pen. Letters were etched with a *stilus* on wax-coated tablets. In the marriage ceremony, the bride was conducted by her friends to her future home. The funeral rites were often accompanied with great pomp.

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#### GREAT NAMES OF THE FIRST PERIOD.

**VERGIL.**—Born near Mantua, 70 B.C.—a famous Latin poet—lived on the farm which he inherited from his father—chief works, "*Æneid*," "*Georgics*," and "*Eclogues*"—died 19 B.C.

**HORACE.**—Born in Apulia, 65 B.C.—a celebrated Latin poet—educated at Rome and Athens—patronized by Mæcenas, from whom he received a Sabine farm—chief works, "*Odes*," "*Satires*," and "*Epistles*"—died 8 B.C.

- LIVY.**—Born at Padua, 59 B.C.—died 17 A.D.—lived much at Rome—a great historian—chief work, “History of Rome” up to 9 B.C., originally published in 142 vols.—only 35 now extant.
- OVID.**—Born at Sulmo, 43 B.C.—a poet, works licentious—his “Metamorphoses” is well known—banished by Augustus 8 A.D.—died at Tomi, near the Euxine, 18 A.D.
- SENECA.**—Born at Cordova 2 or 3 B.C.—a philosopher—tutor of Nero, by whose orders he bled himself to death 65 A.D.—author of “Physical Questions,” “Epistles,” and ten Tragedies.
- PERSIUS.**—Born in Etruria, 34 A.D.—author of six “Satires,” in all only 650 lines—died 62 A.D.
- JOSEPHUS (Flavius).**—Born at Jerusalem, 37—a Jewish historian—taken into favour by the Emperor Vespasian—wrote a “History of the Wars of the Jews,” “Antiquities of the Jews,” and other works—died at Rome about the beginning of the second century.
- LUCAN.**—Born at Cordova, 39 A.D.—only extant work, his poem of “Pharsalia”—like Seneca, sentenced as a conspirator against Nero to bleed himself to death 65 A.D.
- PLINY (Elder).**—Born 23 A.D.—a distinguished naturalist—once procurator of Spain—suffocated during an eruption of Vesuvius 79 A.D.
- PLINY (Younger).**—Born 61 A.D.—proconsul of Bithynia—a great friend of Tacitus—chief works, “Epistles” and “Panegyric on Trajan.”
- QUINTILLIAN.**—Born at Calagurris in north Spain, 40 A.D.—a teacher of rhetoric at Rome—chief work, “Institutes of Oratory.”
- TACITUS.**—Born in Nero’s reign—a great historian—son-in-law of Agricola, whose life he wrote—author of “Annals,” giving Roman history from death of Augustus to death of Nero; also “Germania” and “Agricola.”
- SUETONIUS.**—Born about the beginning of Vespasian’s reign—author of many historical works—acted as secretary to Hadrian—chief work, “Lives of the Twelve Cæsars.”
- JUVENAL.**—Flourished in the latter part of the first century—a great satiric poet—16 satires extant—little known of his life.
- GALEN.**—Born at Pergamum, 130—a great anatomist and medical writer—studied at Alexandria, and practised at Rome—83 genuine works extant.
- TERTULLIAN.**—Born at Carthage, 160—first of the Latin writers of the Church—chief work, his “Apology for Christians,” written about 198—died 220.
- ORIGEN.**—Born in Egypt, 185—head of the catechetical school at Alexandria—editor and commentator of the Scriptures—died at Tyre, aged 69.
- CYPRIAN.**—Bishop of Carthage in middle of third century—martyred under Valerian, 258—chief work, “Unity of the Church.”
- AMBROSE.**—Born in Gaul about 340—Bishop of Milan—a great foe of Arianism—chief work, “De Officiis”—died 397.
- EUSEBIUS PAMPHIL.**—Born in Palestine about 264—Bishop of Cæsarea—head of the semi-Arian party in the Council of Nicæa—chief works, “Ecclesiastical and Universal History,” and “Life of Constantine”—died 338.
- ATHANASIUS.**—Born at Alexandria in end of third century—Patriarch of Alexandria, 326—a great foe of Arianism, for opposing which he was deposed, though afterwards recalled—wrongly called author of the Athanasian Creed.
- GREGORY NAZIANZEN.**—Born early in fourth century in Cappadocia—assistant to his father, Bishop of Nazianzus—afterwards for a short while Patriarch of Constantinople—theologian and religious poet—died 389.
- WULFILA.**—Born about 318—the “Apostle of the Goths”—an Arian bishop—he devised the Mosso-Gothic Alphabet, into which language he translated the Scriptures—died at Constantinople toward the end of the fourth century.

**CHRYSOBOSTOM**.—(Gold-mouth, from his eloquence)—born at Antioch in middle of fourth century—Patriarch of Constantinople 397—his works contain valuable illustrations of life in those times.

**JEROME**.—Born in Dalmatia about 340—especially learned in Hebrew—founder of monasticism—chief work, a translation of the Bible into the Latin version, called the Vulgate; wrote also Commentaries—died 420.

**AUGUSTINE**.—Born in Numidia, 354—taught rhetoric for some time—Bishop of Hippo 396—the great foe of Pelagius—chief works, "The City of God," and "Confessions," being the story of his own life—died 430.

## CHRONOLOGY OF THE FIRST PERIOD.

Accession of Cæsar Augustus .....	B.C. 27
Birth of Jesus Christ .....	4

### FIRST CENTURY.

Tiberius becomes emperor .....	A.D. 14
The Crucifixion .....	33
The name Christians first used (at Antioch) .....	40
Claudius invades Britain .....	43
First persecution of Christians (Rome) .....	64
Destruction of Jerusalem .....	70
Agricola in Britain .....	78
Great eruption of Vesuvius .....	79
Second persecution (Rome and Syria) .....	95

### SECOND CENTURY.

Trajan subdues Dacia .....	103
Third persecution (Bithynia) .....	110
Trajan's Edict .....	110
Hadrian's Edict, protecting the Christians .....	118
Jerusalem restored as Ælia Capitolina .....	135
Fourth persecution (Smyrna): Martyrdom of Polycarp .....	166
Fifth persecution (Gaul) .....	177

### THIRD CENTURY.

Sixth persecution (Africa) .....	202
Death of Severus at York .....	211
Seventh persecution (Asia Minor) .....	235
Eighth persecution (Rome and provinces) .....	250
Ninth persecution (Rome and Africa) .....	258
Diocletian and Maximian share the empire .....	286
Britain independent under Carausius and Allectus .....	289-300

### FOURTH CENTURY.

Tenth persecution (beginning at Nicomedia) .....	303
Accession of Constantine .....	306
Six emperors at once .....	308
Constantine sole ruler .....	323
First General Council, held at Nicæa .....	325
Constantinople made capital of the East .....	330
Temporary division of the empire: Valens and Valentinian .....	364
West Goths allowed to settle in Mœsia and Thracæ .....	376
Battle of Adrianople: Valens defeated and slain .....	378
Second General Council (at Constantinople) .....	381

Paganism abolished by law .....	A.D. 394
Separation of the empires: Arcadius and Honorius .....	395

## FIFTH CENTURY.

Rome sacked by Alaric .....	410
Romans abandon Britain .....	410
Third General Council (at Ephesus) .....	431
Vandals take Carthage .....	439
Angles, Saxons, and Jutes invade Britain .....	449
Fourth General Council (at Chalcedon) .....	451
Battle of Chalons: Attila defeated by Aëtius and Theodoric .....	451
Venice founded by Italian fugitives .....	452
Rome pillaged by the Vandals .....	455
Fall of the Western empire, 1229 years after foundation of Rome .....	476
Odoacer becomes Ruler of Italy .....	476

## Second Period.

From the Fall of the Western Empire to the  
Accession of Charles the Great.

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### CHAPTER I.

#### *THE AGE OF JUSTINIAN.*

**Central Point:** The Roman Law simplified—529-533 A.D.

**British History:** Foundation of Northumbria—547 A.D.

1. **Italy under Theodoric, the East Goth: 493-526 A.D.—**  
Odoacer ruled Italy until 493, when he perished at Ravenna by the sword of Theodoric, the East Goth. Under the wise rule of the victor Italy revived. A waste and ruined land was soon loaded with purple grapes and yellow corn. Fair buildings arose. Once more gold and iron were dug from the earth. Romans and East Goths lived in peace and plenty, although a broad line, jealously preserved by the policy of Theodoric, kept them apart. The fair-haired Goths, still wearing their furs and brogues, carried the sword; while the Romans, wrapped in the flowing toga, held the pen and filled the schools. So passed three and thirty years, until Theodoric died in 526, and then frightful scenes of blood were enacted over his fallen throne. The West Goths now ruled Spain and the south of France, where they had founded a kingdom in 414, with Toulouse, and afterwards Toledo, as its capital. The Franks occupied the north of Gaul and both banks of the Rhine, while the Burgundians were settled in the south-east of Gaul and in Switzerland.



FRAGMENTS OF THE WESTERN EMPIRE.

**2. The French Monarchy : 496 A.D.**—The Franks were first united by Chlodwig or Clovis (afterwards softened into Ludwig and Louis), the leader of the Salian tribe. In 486 he defeated the Romans in the great battle of Soissons, and soon afterwards made himself sole ruler of the Franks, with Soissons as his capital. He then crossed the Loire, and drove before him Romans, Burgundians, and West Goths, never resting until his dominion stretched from the delta of the Rhine to the Pyrenees. Thus were the foundations of the French monarchy laid. During his career of victory, Clovis was baptized a Christian at Rheims in 496. Soon afterwards he fixed his capital at Paris, where he died in 511. It is worth remembering that Theodoric married the sister of Clovis.

**3. Accession of Justinian : 527 A.D.**—During these events young Justinian was growing up in Constantinople. His uncle, Justin, a stalwart peasant of Dacia, had enlisted in early life among the guards of Leo, and had risen to be Emperor of the East. By him Justinian was educated, adopted, and in 527 crowned.

4. **Belisarius takes Carthage: 533 A.D.**—The name of Belisarius, the great general of Justinian, soon became the first of the age. His first laurels were won in Persia; he was then chosen to lead an expedition against the Vandals of Africa. Within a month of his landing there he led his troops into Carthage, which blazed with torches of welcome. Gelimer, the Vandal king, after a vain attempt to retrieve his fortunes, fled to the Numidian mountains, but was soon starved into a surrender, and carried to Constantinople to grace the victor's triumph. Among the spoils were the vessels of the Jewish Temple, which, carried to Rome by Titus, had been taken to Carthage by the pirate Genseric. They were now placed in the Christian Church at Jerusalem.

5. **Belisarius's Conquest of Italy: 539 A.D.**—But the greatest achievement of Belisarius was the conquest of Italy, by which for a short time the East and the West were re-united under one sovereign. The subdual of Sicily, and the capture first of Naples and then of Rome, mark the steps of victory by which he drove the Goths northward before him. Mustering the whole strength of their nation at Ravenna, under their king Vitiges, the Goths marched to besiege Belisarius in Rome. And then the genius of this great commander shone with its brightest lustre. In the first assault the Goths were nearly successful; but Belisarius, dusty and blood-stained, fighting in the front of the battle, turned back the tide of war. After many days of busy preparation, another grand assault was made. Hastily the walls were manned; and, as the giant lines came on, Belisarius himself, shooting the first arrow, pierced the foremost leader. A second shaft, from the same true hand, laid another low. And then a whole cloud, aimed only at the oxen which drew the towers and siege-train towards the wall, brought the attacking army to a complete stand-still. It was a decided check; and though the siege dragged on for more than a year, every effort of the Goths was met and foiled with equal skill. So desperate was the defence at times, that matchless statues were broken up and hurled from the wall upon the Goths below. About the middle of the siege, the Pope Sylvester was convicted

of having sent a letter to the Goths, promising to open one of the gates to them, and was banished from the city. At last the besiegers, worn out with useless toil, burned their tents and fell back to Ravenna, where before long they yielded to Belisarius, at whose feet all Italy then lay. Milan, a city second only to Rome, had been destroyed the year before by a host of Franks, who rushed down from the Alps to aid the Goths, and enrich themselves with the plunder of the plain.

6. Through all these brilliant achievements, Belisarius had been greatly vexed and hampered by intriguing rivals, especially by the ambitious Narses. And now his star began to pale. In two campaigns (541-42), he drove back over the Euphrates the King of Persia, who had ruined Antioch and was planning a raid on Jerusalem. A report having reached the camp that Justinian was dying, the general let fall some rash words, which implied that the Empress Theodora—who had once been an actress—was unworthy to succeed to the throne. For this he was recalled, disgraced, and heavily fined, his life being spared only for the sake of his wife Antonina, who was then in high favour with the empress.

7. Belisarius was sent to Italy again, in 544, to oppose Totila, a brave and clever Goth, who was making manful efforts to restore the empire of Theodoric; but he was forced to stand idly by with insufficient forces, while the Goths took Rome, having reduced the citizens to feed on mice and nettles (546). He recovered the city in a month or two, and then held out against every attack. During the remainder of his stay in Italy his strength was frittered away in the south of the peninsula, where Totila pressed him hard. At length in 548 he got leave to return home.

8. **The End of Belisarius.**—Then, having narrowly escaped murder, he lived in private until 559, when he was called into the field to meet an inroad of Bulgarians, a Mongolian people allied to the Finns, who, having come originally from the Volga, had crossed the frozen Danube, and were now only twenty miles from Constantinople. The stout old soldier, having beaten back the savages, came home to be treated



coldly, and dismissed without thanks. Soon after, accused of plotting to murder the emperor, he was stripped of all his wealth, and imprisoned in his own house. His freedom was restored, but the death-blow had been given; he lived only eight months longer. We are all familiar with the bent figure of a blind old man, begging for alms in the streets, though he was once the great Belisarius, conqueror of Africa and Italy. Painters and poets have seized eagerly on the romantic story; but it is doubted by most historians.

9. **Narses first Exarch of Ravenna: 553 A.D.**—It was left for Narses, purse-bearer to Justinian, once the rival and now the successor of Belisarius, to destroy the East-Gothic kingdom in Italy. With Lombards and Huns following his banner, he defeated and slew Totila in 552, and then occupied Rome, which was taken and retaken five times during the reign of Justinian. But his task was not finished until Teja, last of the East-Gothic kings, fell at the foot of Vesuvius. Most of the surviving East Goths were then allowed to leave Italy with part of their wealth. And thus, having held the peninsula for sixty years, they pass from our sight. Narses, having then repelled a swarm of Franks and other Germans, who had ravaged Italy from north to south, was made the first exarch of Ravenna, and continued for many years to rule with prudence and vigour as the representative of the Eastern emperor. Thus were the Eastern and Western Empires again united, at least in name and for a time.

10. **Justinian's Code of Laws: 529-533 A.D.** — It is now time to turn to the greatest glory of Justinian's reign—his reduction of Roman law to a simple and condensed system. For centuries the laws had been multiplying. Every decree of every emperor—even heedless words spoken by the most foolish or the most wicked in that chequered line from Hadrian to Justinian—became a binding law. Nobody could know the law, for on any point there might be a dozen contradictory decisions. Justinian set himself, with the aid of Tribonian and other learned men, to work this chaos into order. His system consists of four great parts:—(1.) The *Code*, a conden-



EMPIRE OF JUSTINIAN.

sation of all earlier systems, was first published in 529. (2.) Not less valuable were the *Institutes*, a volume treating of the elements of Roman law, intended for students, and published in 533. (3.) In the same year appeared the *Digest*, or *Pandects* (that is, "all-comprising"), which in fifty volumes gave the essence of the Roman jurisprudence. This great work was finished in three years; and some idea of the cutting-down found needful may be gathered from the fact that three million sentences were reduced to one hundred and fifty thousand. (4.) The *Novels* consisted of the new laws issued by Justinian himself.

**11. The Nika Riot: 532 A.D.**—During the whole reign, the old rivalry between the Blue and Green factions of the Circus—originally backers respectively of the blue and green chariots in the races—convulsed the capital. It reached a crisis in 532, when a destructive riot, called *Nika* (Vanquish!) from the watchword of the combatants, raged for five days, during which many fine buildings, including the Cathedral of St. Sophia, were destroyed by fire. Blues and Greens united against the emperor, who was on the point of fleeing, when the firmness of his wife restrained him. The Blues returned to their allegiance; and the blood of thirty thousand of their foes soaked the sand of

the Hippodrome. The secret of silk-making, which had been jealously guarded by the Chinese, was now made known to Europe by two monks, who brought the eggs of the silkworm from the East, hidden in a hollow cane. Justinian adorned his capital with twenty-five churches. The chief of these was the Cathedral of St. Sophia, which he rebuilt with great magnificence, adorning it with gems and many-coloured marble—with pillars of green jasper from the Temple of Diana at Ephesus, and pillars of porphyry from the Temple of the Sun at Rome.

**12. Death of Justinian: 565 A.D.**—Justinian died in 565, aged eighty-three. Leaving no heir, he was succeeded by his nephew, Justin II. He was active, temperate, and good-natured; but he was the slave of an imperious and vicious wife. In his religious views he was capricious and intolerant. In his early days, he was a zealous persecutor of heretics; in his old age, he became a heretic himself.

**13. The Lombard Kingdom in Italy: 568 A.D.**—The last great wave of barbarians now rolled from the North. The Longobards, or Lombards, taking their name probably from their long spears (*bardi*), began to move from central Germany toward the Danube. The Avars, a wandering race of archers, driven from their home on Mount Ural by the Turks of the Caspian, joined the tumultuous march. Together, they fell upon the Gepidæ, a tribe of Teutons who had settled on the north bank of the Danube. The king of the ill-fated tribe was slain, and his skull was made into a drinking-cup by Alboin, the Lombard chief, who then married the daughter of the dead man. Leaving his conquests to the Avars, Alboin crossed the Alps, overran the fruitful plain ever since called Lombardy, and was there raised on a shield as King of Italy. The Lombard kingdom thus founded lasted till the time of Charles the Great (774). Alboin was soon murdered at the instigation of Rosamund, his wife, whom, we are told, he forced, at a public banquet, to drink out of her father's skull. For the next two hundred years the Lombard kings and the exarchs of Ravenna, who represented the Byzantine or Eastern Empire, held Italy between them.

## NOTES.

§ 2. **Salian tribe**, a tribe of the Franks. From them is said to be derived the *Salic* law, under which freehold property cannot descend to females. Hence no woman can rule in France.

4. **Vessels of the Jewish Temple**, the golden table, and the candlestick with seven branching lamps.

8. **Doubted by most historians.** Lord Mahon, in his life of Belisarius, defends the story. It rests entirely on the authority of a writer of the eleventh century.

9. **Exarch**, vicegerent.

11. **Nika**, from the Greek verb νικάω, "I conquer" or vanquish.

**SUMMARY.**—493. At the death of Odoacer, Italy was ruled by Theodoric, the East Goth.—496. The foundations of the French monarchy were laid by Clovis.—527. Justinian was crowned emperor.—533. Belisarius, Justinian's general, took Carthage.—539. He conquered Italy; but fell into disfavour in his later years. Narses, the successor of Belisarius, destroyed the East-Gothic kingdom in Italy.—553. He was made first exarch of Ravenna.—529-533. Justinian's Code of Laws was published in four parts—the Code, the Institutes, the Pandects, the Novels.—532. A riot (called Nika) of the Blue and Green factions of the Circus against the emperor proved unsuccessful. Silk-making was at this time introduced into Europe.—565. Justinian died at the age of eighty-three.—568. A Lombard kingdom was founded in the north of Italy by Alboin.

## EASTERN EMPERORS OF THE SIXTH CENTURY.

Anastasius .....	A.D. 491-518	Justin II.....	A.D. 565
Justin I.....	518	Tiberius II.....	578
Justinian I.....	527	Maurice .....	582

## CHAPTER II.

*THE GROWTH OF THE PAPACY.*

**Central Point:** Gregory's Letter to the Patriarch of Constantinople—595 A.D.

**English History:** Augustine founded Christianity in Kent—597 A.D.

**Scottish History:** Columba settles on Iona—563 A.D.

1. **Infancy of the Papal Power.**—Our knowledge of the Papacy in its earliest days is very dim and uncertain. Peter, the apostle, who, as tradition relates, was crucified with his head downwards about 66 A.D., is claimed by the advocates of the papal system, but on questionable evidence, as first Bishop of Rome. No doubt for many a day the bishops of Rome were humble dwellers in a mean suburb, scouted as Jews, and despised as the apostles of some wild Eastern heresy,

by the magnificent priesthood of Jupiter and Apollo; and when they did gain a place in the public eye, it was as noble witnesses for the truth, sealing their faith with their blood. Out of thirty Roman bishops of the first three centuries, nineteen suffered martyrdom. Thus cradled in darkness and baptized in blood, the great power of the imperial see struggled through the years of its infancy.

2. Before the close of the first century, Christian churches were scattered over all the known world. These were at first essentially Greek in their language, their Scriptures, and their forms of worship. Latin Christianity may be said to have had its birth in Africa—where, about 200, flourished Tertullian, first of the great Fathers who wrote in Latin. But, Rome being the centre of the civilized world, the Christian communities everywhere began naturally to look to the Bishop of Rome as a leader in the Church.

3. **Appeal to the Bishop of Rome: 366 A.D.**—A great step in this direction was taken, when at the Council of Sardica in 343 the right of appeal to the Bishop of Rome was formally conceded, though at first probably only as a temporary expedient. In the time of Damasus, who succeeded to the see in 366, the bishopric had become a prize worth contesting, and blood flowed freely during the elections. Year after year consolidated and extended the power of this central see, although a powerful rival had sprung up on the Bosphorus in the person of the Patriarch of Constantinople.

4. Innocent I., Leo I., and Gregory the Great, were the three great founders of the Papacy.

5. **Innocent I.: 402-417 A.D.**—While Honorius was disgracing the name of Emperor, Innocent began his pontificate. It was soon clear, from his letters to the bishops in the West, that he was bent on claiming for the see of Rome complete supremacy in all matters of discipline and usage. In the midst of his efforts to secure this end, a terrible event occurred, which had the effect of investing him with a grandeur unknown to his predecessors. Alaric and his Goths besieged Rome. Honorius was trembling amid the swamps of Ravenna; but Innocent

was within the walls of the capital. Deserted by her emperor, Rome centred all hope in her bishop. A ransom bought off the enemy for a while; and when, soon after, the great disaster of wreck and pillage fell on the city, Innocent was absent in Ravenna, striving to stir the cowardly emperor to some show of manliness. He returned to evoke from the black ashes of Pagan Rome the temples of a Christian City. Thenceforward the Pope was the greatest man in Rome.

6. **Pelagianism.**—In the later days of Innocent, the great heresy of Pelagius began to agitate the West. This man was a Briton, who passed through Rome, Africa, and Palestine, preaching that there was no original sin; that men, having perfect free-will, could keep all Divine commands by the power of nature, unaided by grace. These doctrines were combated by Augustine, Bishop of Hippo in Africa, one of the great Fathers of the Church, whose opinions soon became the standard of orthodoxy throughout the West. Innocent, leaning towards Augustine, declared Pelagius a heretic, but death prevented him from doing more. By the next Pope, Pelagius was banished, and of his end nothing is known.

7. **Leo I. : 440-461 A.D.**—Leo I., a Roman by birth, was unanimously raised to the popedom in 440. He was distinguished for his stern dealings with heretics, and his energetic efforts to extend the spiritual dominion of Rome. Yet, like Innocent I., he owes his great place in history to the bold front he twice showed to the barbarians menacing Rome. The savage Attila was turned away by his majestic remonstrance; and although his intercession with Genseric the Vandal, three years later, had less avail, it yet broke the force of the blow that fell on the hapless city.

8. **Jerome : Ambrose : Augustine.**—While the Papacy was thus laying the deep foundations of its authority, active intellects were busily moulding its doctrines and discipline into shape. Chief among these were Jerome, Ambrose, and Augustine. Jerome, the secretary of Pope Damasus, and afterwards a monk of Bethlehem, gave the first great impulse to the monastic system, which has been so powerful an agent in

spreading the doctrines of Popery. Ambrose, Archbishop of Milan, vindicated the authority of the priesthood even over kings and emperors, by condemning Theodosius I. to a long and weary penance for a massacre of the Thessalonians. Augustine, Bishop of Hippo; already noticed, is justly called the "Father of Latin Theology."

9. **Conversion of Barbarians.**—It must not be forgotten that the barbarians who overthrew the Roman Empire had already, with few exceptions, been converted to Christianity. The Goths were the first to receive the gospel; other tribes followed in quick succession: for the Teutonic character had, even in its barbaric phase, a ground-work of deep thoughtfulness which secured a ready acceptance for Christianity. And when the barbaric flood had swept away every vestige of the Roman Empire, the Papacy, cherished by the same destroying power, continued to grow, gathering every year new strength and life, —a new Rome rising from the ashes of the old, mightier than the vanished empire, because it held sway over the spirits of men.

10. **Gregory I.: 590-604 A.D.**—In Gregory the Great, who became Pope in 590, we behold the third great founder of the Papacy, and the fourth of the great Fathers of Latin Christianity. He it was who, while yet a humble monk of St. Andrew, being struck with the beauty of some English boys in the Roman slave-market, formed the design of sending a mission to Britain; and who some years afterwards despatched the second Augustine to these shores. All the West felt his energy. Spain, North Africa, and Britain were brought within the pale of the Church, while Jews and heretics were treated with mild toleration. A notable fact of this pontificate was Gregory's letter to John, Patriarch of Constantinople, who openly claimed the title of Universal Bishop. Gregory branded it as a blasphemous name, once applied, in honour of St. Peter, by the Council of Chalcedon to the Roman bishop, but by all succeeding pontiffs rejected as injurious to the rest of the priesthood. War with the Lombards filled Gregory's hands with troubles; but in no long time these fierce warriors came under the spell of a power

against which their swords were powerless. In the days of Gregory they were converted from being heathens, or at best Arians, to orthodox Christianity. He died in 604, leaving a name, as priest, ruler, and writer, second to none in the long roll of popes.

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#### NOTES.

§ 5. **Pontificate.** The name Pontiff is derived from the "Pontifex" Maximus, the chief officer of the pagan Roman hierarchy.

6. **Pela'gius.** This word is supposed to be a Greek translation of his Welsh name *Morgan*, which means "belonging to the sea."

10. **English boys.** When Gregory heard that they belonged to a nation called *Angli* (or English), he cried out, "They are not *Angli*, but *Angeli*" (that is, angels).

**Council of Chalcedon.** This was the fourth General Council of the Church, which met in 451.

**Arians,** followers of Arius of Alexandria (died 336 A.D.), who taught that Christ was not a divine person.

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**SUMMARY.**—366. At the Council of Sardica, the right of appeal to the Bishop of Rome was first conceded; and every year added to his authority and power. During the siege of Rome by the Goths, the people, through the failure of the cowardly Honorius, looked up to their bishop, Innocent I., as protector. The pope was thenceforward the greatest man in Rome.—440–461. Leo I. twice ward off the attacks of barbarians on Rome. Christianity had already been accepted by most of the barbarian tribes that attacked Rome.—590–604. Gregory I. was the third great founder of the Papacy. He sent Augustine on a mission to Britain.

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### CHAPTER III.

#### MAHOMET AND HIS SUCCESSORS.

**Central Point: The Hegira—622 A.D.**

**British History: Edwin, King of Northumbria—617–633 A.D.**

1. The Saracens of the sixth century were not unlike the Arabs of to-day. The sandy table-land which fills the centre of Arabia was dotted with the encampments of roving Bedouin, whose black tents nestled under the shade of acacia and date trees only as long as grass grew green and fresh around the well of the oasis. The fringes of low coast land were filled with busy hives of traders and husbandmen. Mingled with the Saracens were men of many races, Persian, Jewish, and Greek, scraps of whose various creeds had come to be woven into the native worship of sun and stars. The great temple



was at Mecca, in one of the walls of which was fixed a black stone, said by tradition to have been a petrified angel, once pure white, but blackened by the kisses of sinners. Strongly marked in the national character was a vein of wild poetry, and their wandering habits predisposed them for plunder and war.

2. **Early Life of Mahomet.**—Among this people a child was born in 571 in the city of Mecca. His father, Abdallah, of the great tribe Koreish, was one of the hereditary keepers of the temple. His mother was of the same noble race. Left an orphan at six, the little Mahomet (or Mohammed) passed into the care of a merchant uncle, whose camel-driver and salesman he grew up to be. Thus it happened that in early life he took many journeys with the caravans for Syria and Yemen, and his mind became filled with the wild traditions of the desert. At twenty-five, he undertook to manage the business of a rich widow, whose forty years did not prevent her from looking with fond eyes on her clever, handsome steward. They were married, and lived an uneventful life, until in his fortieth year Mahomet proclaimed himself a prophet. For some years before this he had been in the habit of retiring often to a mountain cave for secret thought and study.

3. **His Creed proclaimed: 611 A.D.**—Then to his wife, his cousin Ali, and his friend Abu Beker, he told his strange story. The angel Gabriel, sent from God, had revealed to him wonderful truths, and had commissioned him to preach a new religion, of which the sum was to be, "There is but one God, and Mahomet is his prophet." This faith he called *Islam*, a word denoting homage or surrender, and expressing the believer's relation toward God. The word Moslem (or Mussulman), meaning a believer, is from the same root—*salama*, to submit to God.

4. **The Hegira: July 16, 622 A.D.**—In three years he gained only forty followers. Then, aiming at a wider sphere, he invited his leading kinsmen to his house, and there proclaimed his mission, demanding to know which of them would be his vizier, or chief minister. None but Ali, a boy of sixteen,

answered the call ; the rest refused to follow the prophet and his cousin. All the weight of the tribe Koreish was opposed to him, until ridicule and persecution drove him from the city. Taking refuge in his uncle's castle, he continued to preach Islam in the face of their anger, and even returned to Mecca for a while. But the death of his uncle exposed him to the rage of his enemies ; and when the leaders of Koreish laid a plot to murder him, each swearing to plunge a sword in his body, he fled at midnight, leaving Ali on his bed, wrapped in a green robe, to deceive the murderers. After hiding in a cave for three days with Abu Beker, he reached Medina, where many of his converts lived. This was the great Mahometan era called *Hegira*, or the "Flight," from which Moslems have since reckoned the years. In Medina the prophet built his first mosque, beneath the roof of which his own body was to be laid in the grave, ten years later. Thus the preaching of Islam began to radiate from a new centre.

5. **Appeal to the Sword.**—But a great change came. The dreamer and meek preacher became an ardent soldier. He issued a proclamation granting permission to his faithful followers to go to war against the enemies of Islam in the name of God.

6. His earliest attacks were upon the caravans of his ancient enemies, the Koreish. With only three hundred followers, he fell upon one thousand Meccans in a valley near the city, where they had hurried out to protect a rich camel-train from Syria. The caravan escaped ; but its defenders were driven in headlong rout into Mecca. Among the spoils was a sword of fine temper, which was in the prophet's hand in all his future battles. Next year, he was defeated and wounded in the face a few miles north of Medina. This was a heavy blow, but the elastic spirit of the warlike apostle rose bravely from under it, although he had now to struggle, not alone against the Koreish, but against the Jews, who mustered strong in Northern Arabia. From Medina, now fortified with a deep moat, he beat back a great host, headed by the prince of the Koreish. So greatly was his name now feared, that, when he approached Mecca,

in the holy month with fourteen hundred warlike pilgrims, an embassy from the Koreish sued for peace. A treaty for ten years was made, of which one condition was that he and his followers should have leave to visit Mecca, on pilgrimage for three days at a time.

**7. Conquest of Arabia.**—He then turned his sword upon Chaibar, the Jewish capital of Northern Arabia, where, we are told, the bearded Ali, having lost his buckler in the front of the battle, tore a gate from its hinges, and bore it as a shield all day. The fortress was taken; but it was near being a dearly-bought conquest. When the prophet called for food, a shoulder of lamb, cooked by a Jewish girl, was set before him. The first mouthful told him something was wrong: sharp pain seized him; the meat had been poisoned. One of his followers, who had eaten some, died in agony. Mahomet recovered for the time, but his frame received a fatal shock. Another battle laid all Arabia at his feet. Then, king in all but name, he turned his eyes beyond Arabian frontiers. He sent embassies to Constantinople and Persia, demanding submission to his faith; but they were scornfully repelled. He sent an army into Syria; and there, not far from the Dead Sea, the troops of the Eastern Empire were met in battle for the first time by the soldiers of Islam, and were beaten.

**8. Capture of Mecca: 629 A.D.**—The great achievement of Mahomet's later life was the occupation of Mecca in 629. At the head of ten thousand men he began a hurried, silent march. No watchfire was lighted, no trumpet blown, till they came close to the city. The Prince of Mecca, made prisoner outside the walls, was converted by having a naked sabre swung over his head. Being allowed to return, he told the Meccans how useless it would be to resist the warrior prophet. And so, unopposed, clad in a pilgrim's garb, but preceded by a forest of swords and lances flashing in the sunrise, the conqueror entered his native city. Three hundred and sixty idols of the temple were broken to pieces; and from every Meccan throat burst the watchword of Islam, "God is great, and Mahomet is his prophet."

9. **War in Syria.**—The last military efforts of Mahomet were directed against Syria. One of his lieutenants spread his dominion from the Euphrates to Akaba, at the head of the Red Sea, the capture of which opened the path of the Moslems into Africa. The prophet himself was half-way to Damascus, when he turned, and went back to Medina to die.

10. **Death of the Prophet: 632 A.D.**—Soon after his return, Mahomet became seriously ill; but nothing would induce him to abandon his religious duties. He aggravated his fever by going out at night to pray among the tombs of the faithful. When he became too weak to move about, he withdrew to the house of his favourite wife Ayesshah, and he died leaning his head on her breast, June 8, 632, in the sixty-second year of his age.

11. **The Creed of Mahomet.**—At the foundation of his creed were the two declarations: "There is no God but God," and "Mahomet is God's apostle." He did not, however, profess to be the founder of a new religion. He held that his religion had always been the only orthodox creed since the beginning of the world. At various times great apostles had been sent by God to reveal his will concerning the faith, and to proclaim new laws. Of these apostles Mahomet himself was the last in order, his predecessors having been Adam, Noah, Abraham, Moses, and Jesus.

12. Accordingly, many of Mahomet's doctrines resembled those of the Bible. He believed in God as a self-existent, omniscient, omnipresent, omnipotent, and merciful being. He believed in the resurrection, in the last judgment, and in paradise and hell. The last of his fundamental doctrines was that everything was foreordained by God, and that every man's duty was to submit to his predestined fate—a doctrine which tended to make his followers contented in peace, and brave and even reckless in war.

13. **Abu Beker, Caliph: 632 A.D.**—When Mahomet died, four candidates claimed to succeed him. These were Abu Beker, the father of his best-loved wife; Omar, father of a second wife; Othman, the husband of two of his daughters;

and Ali, his own cousin, married to Fatima, his only living child. Abu Beker was appointed caliph (that is, successor), and signalized his reign by the establishment of a Moslem kingdom on the west bank of the Euphrates. The Saracen leader in this war was the fiery Khaled, surnamed the "Sword of God." He laid siege to Damascus, which fell in 635, on the very day of Abu Beker's death.

**14. Omar, Caliph: 635 A.D.**—Omar, to whom the caliphate was left, pressed on the Syrian war. When Jerusalem surrendered in 637, the caliph—a foe to all finery and luxury—rode to take possession of the city, dressed in ragged hair-cloth, and seated on a rusty-brown camel, round whose neck were slung two little bags of rice and dates. We are reminded of this conquest by the Mosque of Omar, which the caliph built on the site of the great Jewish Temple. By the fall of Aleppo and Antioch, all Syria was speedily subdued. Amru, another of Mahomet's warlike disciples, then fought his way through Egypt, crowning his victories with the conquest of Alexandria. The victorious Moslems are charged with having burned the magnificent library of this great city; but recent writers say that it must have been destroyed long before Mahomet's day. Meanwhile, another lieutenant had been warring successfully with the Persian king. For three days a battle raged at Kadesia, until the slaughter of thirty thousand men, and the loss of their sacred banner, which was a blacksmith's leather apron, put the Persians to flight. The capture of the capital drove the royal Persian from his throne. To guard these conquests, Omar founded Bassora on the Euphrates, which became a great centre of commerce. This greatest of the immediate successors of Mahomet, the conqueror of Syria, Egypt, and Persia, was stabbed in the mosque at Medina by a Persian fire-worshipper, and died a few days later (644).

**15. Othman, Caliph: 644 A.D.**—Under Othman, his successor, the most notable event was the appearance of the Moslems as victors by sea. A fleet, built by the Emir of Syria, swept the Levant, conquering Cyprus and Rhodes, and destroying at the latter island the great brazen statue famed as the Colossus.

Othman has been called the "Gatherer of the Koran," from his success in restoring the purity of the original version. The feeble old man of eighty, unable to cope with the restless spirits around him, was murdered by a mob in his own house at Medina.

**16. Ali, Caliph: 655 A.D.**—Ali, in whose veins ran Mahomet's blood, was then elected caliph; but not without discontent and dissension, of which the very greatness of the Moslem dominion was the source. The election was a scene of clamour. Men were there from the Euphrates, from the Jordan, and from the Nile. Muawyah, the victorious Syrian emir already noticed, raised the banner of revolt; and when Ali was assassinated in 661, he became the first caliph of the great Ommiad line.

**17. Muawyah, Caliph: 661 A.D.**—Muawyah transferred the seat of the caliphate from Medina to Damascus. It was under him that the Saracens girded themselves for their first dash at Constantinople. Yezid, the caliph's son, led the attack. For seven years (668–675) the siege went on; but every assault was repelled by torrents of the terrible Greek fire—a mixture which seems to have been made chiefly of *naphtha*. Scorched and blinded by the unquenchable flame, the Moslems recoiled, leaving the Bosphorus strewn with the charred fragments of their fleet. A second siege, forty-one years later, had the same result.

**18. Saracen Conquest of Africa: 670–709 A.D.**—On the southern shore of the Mediterranean, the arms of the Saracens met with greater success. The Eastern Barbary States were quickly subdued by Akbah, Muawyah's bravest general, who founded, near the modern Tunis, the city of Kairouan, which grew to be the great mart of Northern Africa in the Middle Ages (675). Discord at Damascus stayed the progress of conquest for a time, and the Greeks still held the sea-coast. Twenty years later, the Greeks were expelled, and Carthage was given to the flames (698). The westward advance of the Saracens was checked by the hordes of Berbers and Arabs, mixed with the descendants of Greek, Carthaginian, and Roman settlers, to whom the general name of Moors was given. These

were finally subdued by the great Musa in 709, and were readily induced to adopt the religion, the language, and even the nationality of their conquerors. Thirty thousand of the Moorish youth enlisted under the banner of the caliph. Thus the Moslem power was extended from the Euphrates to the Atlantic, over the sandy plains of Asia and Africa, and a host of turbaned Saracens stood watchfully at the pillars of Hercules, ready to spring into Europe.

19. **Saracen Conquest of Spain: 711 A.D.**—The momentous leap was taken in 711 by Musa's lieutenant Tarik, whose name is preserved in that of the great rock-fortress of southern Spain—*Jebel-al-Tarik*, the "Mountain of Tarik," Gibraltar—near which he landed his army. In the great battle of Xeres, on the plains of the Guadalquivir, he overthrew Roderic the king of the West Goths, who was drowned in the river, and the remnant of his people was driven into the mountain-land of Asturias. Henceforth we have in Spain two distinct and rival States;—the Mahometan province of the caliphate, ruled from Cordova; and the Christian kingdom of Asturias, afterwards Leon.

#### NOTES.

§ 1. **Saracens.** The name is derived from an Arabic word meaning "Eastern people."  
3. **Moslem, Mahometan,**—was applied to both Saracen and Turk. The Saracens were Arabs, and the Turks were Tatars, or Tartars.

4. **Hegira.** The word properly means "the Emigration."

11. **Koran.** The sayings of the prophet were recorded by a scribe, who wrote them separately on palm leaves, and kept these in a box. This confused mass, when edited by Abu Beker, became the Koran.

14. **Mosque of O'mar.** A mosque is a Mahometan place of worship. The Mosque of Omar is by far the most magnificent building in modern Jerusalem. It was completed in 687.

15. **Emir,** an Arabic word meaning "ruler," or "prince."

**Colossus.** It spanned the mouth of the old harbour at the city of Rhodes, and was said to have been 240 feet in height, so that ships of the largest size could sail under it. It was reckoned to contain 720,000 pounds weight of brass. The metal was sold to a Jew, who carried it to Alexandria on the backs of 900 camels.

16. **Ommiad.** The dynasty took its name from Ommiyah, an ancestor of the family.

17. **Greek fire,** a highly inflammable material, which could be projected to some distance through a tube. The secret of its manufacture is thought to have been brought from India.

**Naphtha,** a liquid distilled from coal tar; rock oil.

**SUMMARY.**—571. Mahomet was born at Mecca.—611. He proclaimed himself a prophet, but met with great opposition.—622. *July 16.* He was forced to flee. The date of this escape forms the Mahometan era of the Hegira. He built his first mosque

in Medina. Then followed his conquest of Arabia.—629. He captured Mecca.—632. While carrying on a war in Syria, the prophet turned back to die at Medina. The Mahometan creed is embodied in the Koran. The successors of Mahomet (Caliphs) were: 632. Abu Beker; 635. Omar; 644. Othman; 655. Ali; 661. Muawyah.—709. The Saracen conquest of Northern Africa was completed.—711. The Saracens crossed into Spain, and established a Mahometan kingdom in Europe.

## CHAPTER IV.

### *MEROVINGIANS AND THEIR MAYORS.*

**Central Point: Battle of Tours—732 A.D.**

**British History: Ethelbald, King of Mercia—737 A.D.**

1. The Merovingians, or Merwings, took their name, according to some, from Merwig, or Meroveg, the grandfather of Clovis; according to others, from Meergau, a district on the mouths of the Rhine, where the Salic Franks ruled. The Merwings were perhaps the worst race of kings of which history has to record the doings.

2. **Division of the Kingdom.**—When Clovis, the true founder of the French monarchy, died in 511, his kingdom was cut into fragments, and for more than a century the curse of a divided power vexed the land. There were four great divisions. Neustria lay north of the Loire; eastward along and beyond the Rhine was Austrasia; Aquitaine stretched between the Loire and the Pyrenees; while the basin of the Saône and Rhône formed the kingdom of Burgundy. Under Dagobert I. (628–638), the ablest of the Merovingian kings, there was a short-lived union of the kingdoms; but with his sons came new and worse divisions.

3. **The Mayors of the Palace.**—The kings sank into the *rois fainéants*, or sluggard kings, of French history, while the real power passed into the hands of the Mayor of the Palace, a high official, who was chosen by the nobles to be the guide and controller of the sovereign, and who, having command of the army and the military chest, in reality wielded the whole power of the State. Of these mayors the most noted were Pipin of Heristal, his son Charles Martel (the “Hammer,” emblem of





FRANCE UNDER THE MEROVINGIANS.

force and persistence), and his grandson Pipin le Bref (the Short).

4. **Mayor Pipin.**—Pipin of Heristal, Duke of Austrasia, held the office of mayor under Thierry or Theodoric III., one of the sluggard kings. He first gained supremacy over Neustria; and then, placing Neustria and Burgundy under his sons, he made the mayoralty hereditary. He ruled from 687 to 714, holding Cologne and Aix-la-Chapelle as centres of his power.

5. **Mayor Charles.**—Charles, the son of Pipin, succeeded him as Duke of Austrasia in 715—as Mayor in 719. The nominal king sat in his country house, among his barns and his

dovecots, combing the long hair which he cherished as the undoubted sign of his kingship; or drove about with blank face and lack-lustre eyes in a clumsy waggon drawn by oxen, while Mayor Charles fought the battles and made the treaties and the laws of the Franks. One of Charles's grand designs was to reduce the German tribes to obedience; and for this purpose he formed the restless Franks into a sort of militia. But from this work he was turned to do a greater deed—to break the sword of Islam, and thus to win his best title to the tremendous name he bears in history.

6. **Battle of Tours: 732 A.D.**—After the overthrow of the kingdom of the West Goths at Xeres by Tarik, the Moslem flood spread over almost all Spain, and then poured through the passes of the Pyrenees into southern France. The Duke of Aquitaine was defeated by Abderahman, and a great swarm of turbans mustered on the banks of the Loire. But on a grassy plain between Poitiers and Tours a terrible blow was struck, which saved Western Europe from a forced submission to the Moslem creed. The Franks led by Charles Martel and Eudes of Aquitaine strewed the field with the corpses of many thousand Saracens, and drove the shattered remnant of the host back to Spain. Abderahman was among the slain.

7. Then turning to the work he had left off for a while, the Mayor rapidly brought the Bavarians, the Saxons, and the Frisians again under Frankish sway. He was held in no great esteem by the churchmen of his realm; for, when pressed for money, he made no scruple about pillaging a church or a monastery. The Pope, Gregory III., sent him the keys of St. Peter's tomb, with the titles of Consul and Patricius, and begged his aid against the Lombards. But there was too much for the Hammer to do in France, and the aid was not given.

8. When Thierry died in 737, the throne remained vacant for four years, Charles Martel ruling under a new title—Duke of the French—until his death in 741. His sons, Carloman and Pipin, divided the mayoralty between them; but Carloman soon retired to an Italian monastery, and left Pipin alone in the government.

9. **Mayor Pipin.**—Pipin le Bref (the little King Pipin of the nursery tale) aimed more at moral influence over his subjects than his iron-handed father had ever done. In securing this, his best helper was a Saxon monk, Winifred—otherwise known as Boniface, Archbishop of Mayence.

10. **First of the Carolingians: 752 A.D.**—The sluggard Merovingians had long ago become mere names in the State, and the time was now come when the sham was to be done away with. The Pope, repeating the urgent request for aid against the Lombards which had been made in vain to Charles Martel, found Pipin more willing to befriend him. But for this a price must be paid. Pipin put the question to Pope Zachary, "Who ought to be king: the man with the power, or the man with only the name?" On the question and its answer hung the fate of the Merovingian dynasty. Only one answer could be given; and it turned Mayor Pipin into the first of the Karlings, or Carolingian kings of France. Childeric III., shorn of his long royal hair, retired to live and die in a convent. Pipin was crowned twice, with the most solemn sanction of the Church; first by Boniface, then by the hands of Pope Stephen himself, who travelled all the way from Rome to anoint the new monarch at St. Denis near Paris.

11. **Temporal Power of the Papacy: 754 A.D.**—For this service Pipin paid a royal fee. Two expeditions of the Franks into Italy made him master of the exarchate of Ravenna and of the maritime district of Pentapolis, which had been seized by the Lombards. These territories he handed over to the Pope, thus laying the foundation of the temporal sovereignty attached to the Papacy for eleven centuries. This gift of territory comprised the lands between Ancona and the Po, stretching inland to the Apennines; but it did not include Rome, which Pipin reserved for himself with the title of Patricius.

12. Besides his Italian conquests, Pipin subdued the Saxons, took Aquitaine, drove the Saracens finally beyond the Pyrenees, and reduced the Bavarians to vassalage. He died in 768, leaving the western part of his kingdom to Carloman, and the eastern to Charles—well known as Charles the Great, or Charlemagne.

NOTES.

§ 8. **Mayor of the Palace.** The Latin title was *Major Domus*, superintendent of the house.

7. **Consul**, the title of the two chief magistrates of Rome during the Republic.

**Patricius.** At first it meant simply a Roman citizen (from *pater*, father); but afterwards it was a title conferred on distinguished persons only.

11. **Exarchate**, government by an exarch or prefect. (See p. 68, § 9.)

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**SUMMARY.**—511. The kingdom of Clovis was, at his death, split up into four divisions—Neustria, Austrasia, Aquitaine, and Burgundy. The kings allowed the management of affairs to fall into the hands of an official or minister—the Mayor of the Palace. Mayor Pipin gained supremacy over Neustria, and made the mayoralty hereditary.—732. Mayor Charles drove back the Saracens near Tours. He subdued the Bavarians, Saxons, and Frisians.—752. Mayor Pipin le Bref, agreeing to help the Pope against the Lombards, was made king (first of the Carolingians); while Childeric III., the last of the Merovingians, retired to a convent. For this service the Pope received the exarchate of Ravenna and the district of Pentapolis, in Italy, which Pipin had recently acquired—the foundation of the temporal power of the Papacy.

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CHAPTER V.

*INFANCY OF EUROPEAN STATES.*

1. The movements of barbarous races which led to the formation of modern States in Germany, Italy, France, and Spain, have been described in previous chapters. It remains for us to notice the effects of these migrations on some of the other leading countries of Europe. The great events of British history do not fall within the plan of the present book; but in reviewing the infancy of the European States, it would be improper to omit a reference to the founding of the English nation.

2. **Settlement of England.**—Three Teutonic tribes are reputed to have taken part in the conquests and settlements which transformed Britain into England—the Saxons, the Angles, and the Jutes. In the fourth century, the Saxons occupied North Germany between the Ems and the Elbe. Their neighbours beyond the Elbe, in the modern Schleswig-Holstein, were the Angles; while the Jutes occupied the peninsular part of Denmark. All the tribes were of the Teutonic type—blue eyed, red or yellow haired, muscular, adventurous, and brave. Their settlement in Britain in the fifth and sixth centuries is one of the most remarkable facts in the history of

the barbaric migrations. There they found a population of Celts, partly Romanized, who, retreating to the mountains, kept them stoutly at bay with claymore, dirk, and axe. In the end, the invaders triumphed; and the Angles, proving the most powerful and most intelligent people, gave their name to the country—England. Akin to the British Celts were the Irish people, who were even then famous as poets and harpers. Patrick, a Scotsman, began to preach the gospel in Ireland about 432; and, as if to repay the blessing, an Irishman, Columba, passed into Scotland in 563 on the same sacred mission.

3. **The Teuton and the Celt.**—In dress, government, occupation, and religion, the Teuton and the Celt presented a strong contrast to each other. The Teuton garb was a loose, rude tunic, pinned round the neck with a thorn. In youth he wore an iron collar, which was flung aside when he had achieved the distinction of killing a man. Then, too, the young men of some of the fiercest tribes—the Batavians of the Lower Rhine, for example—cut their hair and shaved their heads for the first time. The Gaul or Celt, on the other hand, loved bright and many-coloured clothes, and hung gold chains on his brawny arms or around his neck. This characteristic of the race may still be noted in the coloured tartans of the Highlander and the tasteful fashions of French dress. The Teutonic government was democratic—the chief power resting with the great assembly of the people, which was convoked at the time of full moon; the government of the Celt was essentially aristocratic, clanship being its leading feature. War was the trade of the Teutons; tillage and pasturing were the favourite employments of the Celt. And while the Celts clung long to Druidism, the Teutons, acknowledging one supreme God, were easily prepared to receive Christianity.

4. **Modern "Goths" and "Vandals."**—From Roman ideas of their Teutonic foes, we have inherited two words of bitter contempt. The clown in dress and manners is a "Goth;" the man whose soul is dead to the love of the beautiful in art, and who rejoices in the wanton destruction of glorious paintings and sculptures, is to us a "Vandal."

**5. Holland and the Dutch.**—Holland (Hollowland), whose flat meadows have been formed by gradual deposits of Rhine mud, was at this early time a vast swamp, skirted here and there along the coast by tangled forests. On mounds rising from the morass dwelt a race of fish-eaters, who clung to their poor hovels until a flood swept all away. The emptied Rhine-island was then seized by a fierce German tribe, who, making the most of their new home, called it Betauw ("Good-meadow"), afterwards altered into Batavia. From this mixture of Celt and German sprang the modern Dutch.

**6. Finns and Slavs.**—The original inhabitants of the bleak shores of Northern Europe were Finns, of the Mongol stock—a gentle, black-haired people, whose best representatives now are the Laplanders. These were soon subdued by a race who were at first known to the Romans as Sauromatæ, or Sarmatians ("lizard-" or "green-eyed"), but who afterwards took from their own language the name Slavonian ("manly" or "brave"). Their cities were mere waggon-camps. Their warriors, who led into battle a spare horse or two, wore a cuirass of coarse linen, plated over with thin slices of horse-hoof. Poisoned fish-bones formed the points of their arrows and lances. Their religion was a kind of Druidism; and, among other revolting customs common to many of the northern tribes, they were wont, in rejoicing after a victory, to drink blood out of their enemies' skulls. Our word "slave" (borrowed from the name Slavi) is sadly suggestive of the woes the Slavonians suffered in the wars of the Middle Ages.

**7. Poland.**—Poland was early a flourishing country. It was peopled by a tribe of the western Slavonians. The farmers went to battle on foot, bearing shield and lance; the landlords on horseback, glittering in splendid armour. The traffic between the Black and Baltic Seas, passing along the Vistula, added much to the wealth of the Poles.

**8. Hungary.**—Wild hordes from Mount Ural, passing the Carpathian gorges in quick succession, swept down on the Danube. All pressed on one point—modern Hungary, with its grain-growing vales and gem-producing hills. Goths were

displaced by Huns. Then, from the same far-off snowy slopes, came Avars, Bulgarians, and lastly, Magyars, who, in 855, seized the upland between the mountains and the Theiss. These later invaders were scarcely less savage than the Huns. They ate horse-flesh (though now-a-days that is no sign of barbarism). They shot arrows with terrible force and aim, and flashed their irresistible lances, tipped with bright-coloured pennons, in the faces of their startled foes. Behind the lines of cavalry, as they marched, heavy carts jolted, filled with their wives and little ones. These strangers, once rooted in the basin of the Danube, began to thrive with wonderful rapidity; arts, agriculture, commerce, flourished all alike. About 1000 A.D. they were converted to Christianity, and gradually took shape as the noble Hungarian nation.

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#### NOTES.

§ 2. **Patrik**, the "patron saint of Ireland;" sent by Pope Celestine. He founded schools and monasteries in Ireland, and laboured there for more than thirty years.

**Columba**, a monk of Donegal. He landed with twelve companions on the small island of Iona, off the west coast of Scotland. There he established a school of teachers and preachers, who afterwards did noble missionary work. Died 597.

3. **Druidism**. Thought to be derived from the Celtic word for an "oak," which, along with the mistletoe, was one of their sacred plants. They worshipped the sun, as being the grandest object and the greatest power in nature. The creed of the Druids is thought to have grown out of Eastern fire-worship.

5. **Batavia**. The name still survives in that of the capital of the Dutch Asiatic colonies.

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**SUMMARY**.—In the fifth and sixth centuries Britain was settled by Saxons and Angles from North Germany, and Jutes from Denmark: the native Celtic population of Britain retreated to the mountains. The Teuton and the Celt differed from each other in dress, government, occupation, and religion. Holland was occupied by a fierce German tribe: from them and from the original Celtic inhabitants the modern Dutch are descended. The first occupants of the northern shores of Europe were the Finns, a Mongol race: they were subdued by the Sarmatians or Slavonians. Poland, early a flourishing country, was peopled by Slavonians.—855. The Magyars seized the land between the Carpathians and the Theiss, and founded the Hungarian nation.

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#### GREAT NAMES OF THE SECOND PERIOD.

**SIDONIUS APOLLINARIS**.—Born in Gaul, 428—Bishop of Arverni (Clermont)—an intimate friend of Theodoric—wrote poems and epistles—died 484.

**ZOSIMUS**.—Greek historian of the fifth century—chief work, "History of Rome from Augustus to Second Siege by Alaric."

**PRISCIAN**.—Born in middle of fifth century—taught grammar at Constantinople—chief work, "Treatise on Latin Grammar."

- BOETHIUS.**—Born at Rome, 470—consul under Odoacer and Theodoric—only Latin philosopher of his day—chief work, “On the Consolation of Philosophy,” written in the prison of Pavia, where he was executed in 526.
- PROCOPIUS.**—Born at Cæsarea in end of fifth century—lived at Justinian’s court—wrote “History of His Own Times,” valuable as a link between ancient and mediæval history—wrote also “Anecdota,” a secret history of Justinian’s court.
- CASSIODORUS.**—Born about 468—secretary of Theodoric—wrote “History of the Goths;” also works on rhetoric and grammar—died aged nearly 100.
- GREGORY OF TOURS.**—Born in Auvergne, France, 544—Bishop of Tours—wrote in Latin a history of France up to his own day—our only authority on the early Merovingian reigns.
- AUGUSTINE.**—Prior of St. Andrews at Rome—sent by Gregory I. in 596 to preach to the English—the first Archbishop of Canterbury, where he died, about 605.
- CAEDMON.**—a monk of Whitby—the earliest writer in Anglo-Saxon—wrote religious poetry on “The Creation”—died about 680.
- BÆDA.**—Born near Durham, 672—an English monk—surnamed the “Venerable”—chief work, “History of the Church of the Angles,” published about 734—died in 735.
- WINIFRED.**—Born in Devonshire about 680—otherwise known as Boniface—justly called the “Apostle of Germany,” where he laboured for thirty years—made Archbishop of Mayence—slain by the Frisians in 755.

## CHRONOLOGY OF THE SECOND PERIOD.

### FIFTH CENTURY—*continued.*

Battle of Soissons won by Clovis.....	A.D. 486
The East Goths seize Italy.....	489

### SIXTH CENTURY.

Supposed reign of Arthur in Britain .....	508-42
Paris the capital of Clovis .....	510
Justinian begins to reign .....	527
Victories of Belisarius in Italy .....	536-40
Foundation of Poland by Western Slavonians.....	550
East-Gothic kingdom in Italy ends .....	553
Fifth General Council (at Constantinople).....	553
Narses exarch of Ravenna.....	555
Lombards conquer Italy .....	568
Birth of Mahomet .....	570
Mission of Augustine to Britain.....	596

### SEVENTH CENTURY.

The Hegira .....	622
Death of Mahomet .....	632
Jerusalem taken by Omar .....	637
Ommiads get the caliphate.....	661
Saracens foiled at Constantinople .....	668-75
Sixth General Council (at Constantinople).....	680

### EIGHTH CENTURY.

Spain invaded by the Saracens: Battle of Xeres.....	711
Second fruitless siege of Constantinople .....	716-18
Defeat of Saracens by Charles Martel at Tours.....	732
Abbasides get the caliphate .....	750
Pipin le Bref made king.....	752
Gift of Ravenna and Pentapolis to the Pope .....	754
Caliphate of Cordova founded.....	756
Charles the Great sole ruler of the Franks .....	771



## Third Period.

From the Accession of Charles the Great to the  
Beginning of the Crusades.

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### CHAPTER I.

#### *CHARLES THE GREAT.*

**Central Point:** Charles crowned Emperor of the West at Rome by Leo III.—  
800 A.D.

**English History:** Egbert King of Wessex—802–839 A.D.

**Scottish History:** Struggle between Scots and Picts.

1. We are now to see the splintered fragments of Western Europe—so often combined and dissolved since the great ruin of the Roman Empire—once more united into a solid, towering rock, the noblest land-mark in the history of the Middle Ages; and the hand, whose strong grasp is to hold these mixed and various elements in firm cohesion for three and forty years, is that of Charles the Great, called by the French *Charlemagne*.

2. **Early Life of Charles.**—Charles, the son of Mayor Pipin and Bertha, was born about 742; and it must not be forgotten that this great Austrasian Frank, although best known by his French name, was not a Frenchman at all in our sense of the word, but a thorough German, by birth, speech, and residence. He was yet a child when his father was crowned and anointed king; and, when that father died in 768, he was left to share with his elder brother, Carloman, the sovereignty of the Frankish kingdom. To Carloman were left Neustria, Burgundy—in fact, all northern and central France; to Charles, Austrasia, Thuringia, and other parts of Germany owning Frankish sway.

3. **Sole Ruler of the Franks: 771 A.D.**—The first great military deed of Charles was the reconquest of Aquitaine, the dukes of which had revolted from the Frankish kings. Their reduction once more extended the confines of France to the Pyrenees. Scarcely was that achieved, when, his brother having died in 771, the chiefs of Carloman's realm, passing over the infant children of the dead man, as was common in those troubled times, chose the young conqueror to be their king. He was then twenty-nine years of age.

4. **Two Parts of his Reign.**—His reign divides itself into two parts. The one, extending from its opening in 771 to the complete subdual of the Saxons in 804, was spent in constant wars on almost every frontier; the other, from 804 to his death, was devoted to the organization and improvement of the vast empire which his sword had won.

5. The two principles to which Charles's policy appealed were patriotism and religion. He won the affection of his people by cherishing the old German institutions, on which they looked with deep reverence; and he gained the support of the clergy by becoming the protector of the Pope and the champion of the Church.

6. **His chief Wars.**—The chief wars of Charles were with the Saxons beyond the Rhine, the Lombards of Italy, the Saracens of Spain, and the Avars, who occupied modern Hungary. He fought also with the Danes, and with the Slavonic tribes on his eastern border.

7. **Wars with the Saxons: 772-804 A.D.**—The Saxons, who dwelt chiefly round the Weser, were pagans, closely connected with the savage Frisians, who had shown their hostility to the Church by murdering Bishop Boniface in 755. To anticipate the attack of these fierce and dangerous neighbours, and to open the way for the missionaries of the Church, seem to have been the motives of Charles in this war. The opening campaign (772) was full of evil omens for the Saxons. Their castle of Eresburg was taken; but worse than such a loss was the destruction of their greatest idol, Irminsul. This colossal statue of an armed soldier, carved in wood, stood on a marble pillar

within a spacious court. In time of war, it was carried by the priests into the field; and when the battle was over, all prisoners and cowards were sacrificed at its feet. This image, in which the national worship centred, was broken in pieces by Charles, and the pillar was buried deep in the earth. Smitten with sudden terror, the Saxons sued for peace, giving twelve hostages as pledges of their good faith.

8. **Wittikind, the Saxon Leader.**—The Saxon custom was to choose a leader of the whole nation only in times of emergency: when the crisis was past, the king sank to a level with the other chiefs. But now a man arose who, by the force of his genius, became the master-spirit of his nation. This was Wittikind, to whose prowess the long, determined resistance of the Saxons to the arms of Charles was mainly owing. Stirred by this restless chief, they rose again and again. The war was hottest around Eresburg and Sigiburg, which, taken by the Frankish king, had been made his chief strongholds. Playing on his desire to Christianize them, the defeated Saxons asked to be baptized, and promised to keep peace; but whenever his armies were withdrawn they relapsed into their bloody idolatry, and turned their swords upon the Christian missionaries. This went on for several years, until, in 779, Charles resolved to annex the Saxon country to his empire. He appointed bishops in the conquered land, and he enacted laws in which death was the punishment for almost every crime.

9. Wittikind, who had fled to the Danish king in 777, appearing once more at the head of the Saxons, cut to pieces a great Frankish army at Sinthal. Never perhaps did Charles's wrath blaze out more fiercely than when he heard this fatal news. Hurrying to the scene while his fury was still hot, he massacred in one day four thousand five hundred of those who had taken the field with Wittikind. The chief himself escaped again to the Northmen. In the next spring (783) Charles gave the Saxons another stern lesson, by defeating two of the greatest armies they had ever mustered—the one under Wittikind at Dethmold, the other in Westphalia. The Saxon chief soon abandoned the hopeless contest. Some feeble revolts followed;

but the strength of the nation was broken, and its final subdual dates from 804, when ten thousand of its people were drafted away to Flanders, Brabant, and some districts of France.

**10. War with the Lombards: 773, 774 A.D.**—Charles's first wife was the daughter of Desiderius, the Lombard king of Italy; and, naturally enough, when he divorced her to marry Hildgarde, strong ill-will arose between the monarchs. This made the Frankish king lend a ready ear to the prayer of Pope Adrian I. for aid against the Lombards. His father and his grandfather had been enlisted on the Pope's side; and why should not he, a Roman patricius anointed with holy oil, draw sword in the same cause? His army, piercing the passes of the Alps in two divisions, found the country open to them, and the Lombard king shut up in Pavia. In Verona, which surrendered at once, he found the widow and sons of his brother Carloman, who had fled to the court of Desiderius. Of them we hear no more. One after another the Lombard cities fell; but Pavia stood firm, until Charles, returning from a brilliant visit to Rome, drew the circle of blockade so closely around the city that the starving garrison flung open their gates, and gave up their king. Desiderius spent the rest of his days in a cloister, while Charles, becoming King of Lombardy (774), assumed the famous iron crown worn by the old Longobard chiefs who first settled in Italy.

**11. War with the Saracens of Spain: 778 A.D.**—The Ommiad dynasty sank into weakness, and was at last overthrown in 750 by Abul Abbas, a relative of the prophet. He was the first of the Abbaside caliphs who ruled their vast empire from Bagdad. In order to establish his dynasty, Abbas resolved to put to death all the surviving princes of the Ommiad line. One, however, escaped—namely, Abd-al-Rahman—who fled to Spain, and there founded the independent caliphate of Cordova. Though the great majority of the Mahometans of Spain acknowledged the Western caliph, there were some malcontents, one of whom invited Charles to cross the Pyrenees. Fired with the memory of his grandfather's glory, and hoping, too, to heighten his own fame as Defender of the Faith, he led his forces into

Spain. There, as at the Alps, he adopted the plan which he is said to have first applied, if not to have invented, of dividing his forces and moving the different divisions by converging routes on one great centre. His chief point of attack was Saragossa, the fall of which made him master of Aragon and Navarre. A tract of country south of the Pyrenees was afterwards added to the empire under the name of the Spanish Mark. While the victors, laden with spoil, were returning into France, their rear-guard was cut to pieces in the pass of Roncesvalles ("Brier-valley") by the Basques or Vascons. Among the dead was Count Roland of Bretagne, the nephew of Charles, whose name, embalmed in many a Norman romance, is immortalized in the verse of Ariosto.

**12. War with the Avars: 791-799 A.D.**—Tassilo, Duke of Bavaria, was the son-in-law of Desiderius the Lombard. When the Lombard kingdom was destroyed, Tassilo revolted from Charles, to whom he owed homage, and secretly invited the Avars of Pannonia to support him in his rebellion. The rebel duke was soon shut up in a convent; but the Avars fulfilled their part of the agreement by invading Bavaria (791). In his first campaign against them, Charles penetrated as far as to the river Raab in Hungary. Then, called off by Saxon incursions, he left the war to his son Pipin, who in 796 captured the Ring, a round timber fortress at Buda, full of gold and silver,—an achievement by which the Franks, who had before that time possessed little more than their swords, became well-nigh the richest nation in Europe. During this war, Charles began to dig a canal from the Danube to the Rhine,—a grand idea, which, however, he failed to realize. The defeat of a rising in 799 marks the end of the Avar power in Europe. Still in the defiles of Mount Caucasus dwell a few warlike tribes of similar name; but they are a mere shadow of the great nation smitten on the Danube by the conquering sword of Charles.

**13. Charles crowned Emperor of the West: 800 A.D.**—Take now the central picture of the reign. Pope Leo III., attacked by a band of conspirators, was left bleeding, and all but dead,

one April day on the streets of Rome. On his recovery he visited Charles at Paderborn, where he was royally entertained, and whence he returned to Italy under the escort of nine Frankish nobles. The king himself soon followed. On Christmas day the proudest chiefs and prelates of Italy and of the Frankish land, glittering with purple and gold, stand around the high altar of St. Peter's. In the centre of the throng is a giant figure, whose lofty brow and flashing eye mark a great mind and heart. Clad in the long robe of a Roman *Patricius*, he kneels on the steps of the altar, and bows his head in prayer. Some minutes pass in silence. Then, with quick and sudden action, the noblest of the splendid priesthood places a crown on the head of the kneeling figure, and the walls ring with pealing shouts: "Long life and victory to Charles Augustus, Emperor of the Romans."



EMPIRE OF CHARLES THE GREAT.

14. Two things are specially remarkable in this event. The one is, that it recognized the Franks as the supreme race in Western Europe. The Goths, the Lombards, the Saxons, the Saracens, had one after another disputed their supremacy, and one after another had been forced to own it. The other note-

worthy feature of the event is, that it marked the revival of the Empire of the West in a new form—in the form of a dignity added to power already achieved, and a dignity conferred by the Pope of Rome. Rome and Southern Italy had continued, nominally at least, subject to the Eastern emperor till nearly the middle of the eighth century. But a crusade against images, in which the Emperor Leo took the lead, alienated the Romish clergy so much that the emperors lost all real power in Rome, and the power of the popes grew greater and greater. But even then Rome did not become a possession of the Pope. When King Pipin gave the Pope Ravenna and Pentapolis, he reserved Rome, of which he called himself not emperor but *patricius*. Charles the Great, also, after his conquest of the Lombards, took the same title—*Patricius* of Rome. His coronation showed that the Romans had resolved to choose their own emperor, and that in this they were supported by the Pope. The event therefore marks an epoch in the history at once of the European States and of the Church of Rome, both of which, besides, pledged themselves by it to the monarchical form of government.

15. So early as 781, when his eldest boy was only ten, Charles, looking forward to a time when he should have need of trusty viceroys, had divided his kingdom among his sons. Germany was given to Charles, Aquitaine to Louis, and Italy to Pipin. This arrangement enabled him to spend his later years in comparative peace; for to his sons he left what petty wars were necessary to secure so vast a frontier. Of these three sons Louis alone survived him.

16. **Charles and Foreign States.**—The influence of Charles, enthroned in his great palace at Aix-la-Chapelle, extended to the Byzantine court, and even to Bagdad, where Haroun-al-Raschid (Aaron the Just) dwelt. The great caliph and the great emperor were especial friends. But the best energies of Charles were given to Western Europe, on the destinies of which he wrought so notable a change. A link, too, binds him to British history; for when Egbert of Wessex fled from the usurper Brihtric, he found a safe and pleasant retreat, and, no

doubt, kindly advice and aid besides, in the court of Aix-la-Chapelle (786). Charles feared only one foe, and that not for himself, but for his successors. The light galleys of the Norsemen were already swooping down on the British coasts, and threatening his own seaboard; and the keen eye of the old warrior, piercing the future, could see the Raven of the North seizing more than one part of the structure he had spent his life to rear.

**17. Death and Character: 814 A.D.**—Charles the Great died of pleurisy in his seventy-second year. A year before, in the cathedral of Aix-la-Chapelle, amid the applause of the assembled nobles, he had caused his only living son Louis to assume the imperial crown. Active and untiring, this great man never lost a minute he could turn to account. Even while dressing, he heard the reports of his officers; and as he dined or supped, books of theology or of history were read to him. Habits like these enabled him to get through an enormous mass of work, without neglecting either bodily exercise or the culture of his mind. His genius was essentially military. His sword was seldom sheathed; but war was with him, as it ought ever to be, the pioneer of civilization.

**18. Treaty of Verdun: 843 A.D.**—Louis le Débonnaire ("the Good-natured"), fitter for a monk's cell than for a selfish court or a brawling camp, was aged thirty-six when he succeeded his great father, and he did all his gentle nature could for twenty-six years to humanize his subjects. But belted bishops and lawless chiefs were too strong for him. War among his three sons divided the empire. Lothar, the eldest, seized the imperial title; but Charles and Louis, uniting, defeated him in 841, on the bloody field of Fontenaille. Two years later, a treaty was made at Verdun, which is one of the great land-marks of European history; for by it France and Germany became separate and independent States. Charles held France; Louis ruled Germany; while Lothar received, along with the title of emperor, Italy, and an irregular strip along the banks of the Rhône and the Rhine. France and Germany were again temporarily united when Charles the Fat of Germany was chosen



by the nobles to be King of France as well; but that lasted only for three years (884-887). The later Karlings resembled the later Merwings in this, that they grew very degenerate. There is nothing in the history of kings, branded with nicknames, such as the Stammerer, the Fat, the Simple, the Lazy, to challenge our notice or respect. Such men misgoverned France, until, in 987, under Hugh Capet, a new dynasty arose. With that date the history of the Franks ends; that of the French begins.

## NOTES.

§ 1. *Charles the Great.* Called by the Germans *Karl der Gros*.

13. *St. Peter's*, a "basilica" or ancient Christian church, erected by Constantine, 306. The great cathedral, built later on the site of this church, was completed in 1590; Michael Angelo was one of its architects.

18. *Hugh Capet*, son of the Count of Francia. The name Capet is derived from *cappetus*, a monk's hood, because Hugh was an abbot of St. Martin of Tours. Others say that he got the name on account of his large head (*caput*). Died 996.

**SUMMARY.**—771. Charles, the son of Mayor Pipin, was, by the death of his brother, made sole ruler of the Franks.—771-804. He carried on a long conflict with the Saxons. Under Wittikind they offered a strong resistance to Charles; but they were at last completely subdued.—773, 774. Charles had a war with the Lombards: the king was forced to surrender, and Charles assumed the crown of Lombardy.—778. A successful war with the Saracens of Spain made Charles master of Aragon and Navarre.—791-799. The Avars of the Danube were completely vanquished by the Franks.—800. Charles was crowned Emperor of the West by Pope Leo III. at Rome.—814. Charles died.—843. A treaty was made at Verdun by which France and Germany became separate States.

## CAROLINGIAN KINGS OF THE FRANKS.

Pipin (the Short).....A.D. 752	Charles III. (the Fat).....A.D. 884
Charles the Great and Carloman I. 768	Eudes or Odo, Count of Paris.....887
Charles the Great alone.....771	Charles IV. (the Simple).....893
Louis I. (the Good-natured).....814	Robert, Brother of Eudes.....923
Charles II. (the Bald).....840	Rudolf of Burgundy.....923
Louis II. (the Stammerer).....877	Louis IV. (the Exile).....936
Louis III. and Carloman II. ....879	Lothar.....954
Carloman alone.....882	Louis V. (the Lazy).....986-87

## CAROLINGIAN EMPERORS OF GERMANY.

Charles I. (the Great).....A.D. 800	Charles III. (II. of France).....A.D. 881
Ludwig I. (Louis I. of France).....814	Arnulf.....887
Lothar I.....840	Ludwig III.....899
Ludwig II.....855	Ludwig IV.....899
Charles II. (I. of France).....875	

## CHAPTER II.

*MOSLEMS IN THE WEST AND THE EAST.*

Central Point: Reign of Haroun-al-Raschid—786-808 A.D.

English History: Offa King of Mercia—757-796 A.D.

1. **Extent of the Moslem Empire.**—In the time of Charles the Great, we find the empire of Islam, which had stretched from the Indus to the Atlantic, broken into four parts;—the Abbaside caliphate in Asia and Egypt; the Ommiad caliphate, or emirate, of Cordova in Spain; and two kingdoms in Northern Africa—Mekines, answering to modern Morocco, and Kairouan, along the old Carthaginian shore.

2. **Saracens in Spain.**—Cordova on the Guadalquivir was the centre of Moslem power in Spain. We have already seen how the march of the Crescent beyond the Pyrenees was checked at Tours by Charles the Hammer. Thrown back further and still further by Pipin and Charles the Great, the Saracens, building mosques and schools and cutting out roads on every side, rooted themselves deeply in central and southern Spain. And still deeper struck the roots of their power, when Abd-al-Rahman, only survivor of the Ommiad line, fleeing from murder on the Euphrates, severed Spain from the dominion of the caliphs, and erected the independent caliphate of Cordova. Then began the most brilliant chapter in the story of Moslem power in Europe.

3. **Haroun-al-Raschid, Caliph: 786-808 A.D.**—When the Ommiad dynasty was drowned in blood at Damascus, the sceptre of the caliphs was seized by the Abbasides, who held it for more than five centuries (750-1258). Of this race the most distinguished was Haroun-al-Raschid, who reigned from 786 to 808. The fascinating pages of the "Arabian Nights," the delight of childhood, and of riper years too, have made this name a household word. We can still see the romantic caliph and his vizier, disguised as merchants, slipping out of the postern gate at dusk, to seek adventures in the narrow lanes of Bagdad.

This great city, founded in 765 on the west bank of the Tigris, was for centuries the centre of Moslem power in Asia, the splendid home of the earlier Abbaside caliphs, the scene of their later degradation, and of the blazing tomb of Abdallah, last of the ill-fated line.

4. Before his accession, Haroun had gained a soldier's name on the Bosphorus, where, from his camp on the hills of Scutari, he had granted peace to the Empress Irene only on condition that she should pay him a tribute of 70,000 golden pieces. During his caliphate, he invaded the imperial territory eight times, to enforce the payment of this sum.

5. **The Challenge of Nicephorus.**—Nicephorus, having de-throned Irene, sent Haroun a letter. "The queen," wrote he in the language of the chess-board, "considered you a rook, and herself a pawn. Restore the fruits of your injustice, or abide the determination of the sword." The imperial envoy at the same time cast a sheaf of swords at the caliph's feet. Haroun, with a smile, drew his scimitar,—Saracen steel was then famous all the world over,—and, without turning its edge, he hacked to pieces all the badly-tempered blades. Then, turning to his scribe, he bade him write: "Haroun-al-Raschid, Commander of the Faithful, to Nicephorus, the Roman dog. I have read thy letter, thou son of an unbelieving mother. Thou shalt not hear, thou shalt behold, my reply."

6. He then ravaged Asia Minor from end to end, leaving the ruins of Heraclea on the Euxine shore to mark the terrible meaning of his answer. To imprint the disgrace of submission more deeply still, the emperor was compelled to stamp the tribute-gold with the heads of Haroun and his sons.

7. **Death of Haroun.**—Haroun in the East rivalled the policy by which his friend Charles the Great made Aix-la-Chapelle the Western centre of genius and learning. In the gorgeous halls of Bagdad, too, poets and scholars found a home and rich rewards; and under this kindly fostering the most brilliant period of Arabian literature began. The great blot on the memory of this most illustrious of the caliphs was the massacre of the Barmecides—a powerful Persian family of

which he was jealous—though two of them were his trustiest viziers. He died in 808, while on an expedition against the rebel Satrap of Khorasan.

8. **The Emir-al-Omra.**—In the middle of the tenth century a new feature marked the history of the caliphate. The mayors of the palace, usurping the functions of the Frankish kings, found their parallel among the Moslem viziers or emirs. The Caliph Rhadi (Ahmed IV.), helpless in the midst of an unruly people, gave all his power into the hands of Mahomet ben Raik, with the title of Emir-al-Omra ("Emir of Emirs"), reserving for himself only the shadowy dignity of High Priest of the Mosque. This chief emirship became a bone of furious contention; but for more than a century it continued to be held by the members of a single family (945–1056).

9. **End of the Abbaside Caliphate: 1258 A.D.**—Then, sweeping from the Caspian, came the horse-tail standards of the Seljuk Turks (1058), whose leader, Togrul Bey, became Emir-al-Omra, and whose conquests were soon extended to the borders of Syria. Still the Abbasides clung to the scene of their vanished power, until in 1258 a host of Mongol Tartars seized Bagdad, and Abdallah, last of the caliphs, died amid the ruins of the once brilliant city.

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#### NOTES.

§ 1. **Empire of Islam.** For its "four parts," see map, p. 97.

7. **Sa'trap**, governor of a province under the ancient Persian monarchy.

9. **Seljuk Turks.** They had their home on the eastern shore of the Caspian. Three barbaric waves must be distinguished—that of the Seljuk Turks under Togrul Bey, in the eleventh century; that of the Mongol Tartars under Jenghis Khan, in the thirteenth century; and that of the Ottoman Turks, in the fourteenth and fifteenth centuries.

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**SUMMARY.**—Abd-al-Rahman, last of the Omniad line, erected the Moslem kingdom in Spain into the independent caliphate of Cordova.—786–808. Haroun-al-Raschid was the most distinguished of the Abbasides—the successors of the Omniad caliphs. He enforced the payment of tribute from the Empress Irene, and from her son, Nicephorus. Like Charles the Great, Haroun was a patron of learning and literature.—940. The Caliph Rhadi gave all his power into the hands of Mahomet ben Raik, who became Emir-al-Omra; the caliph reserved for himself only the title of High Priest of the Mosque.—1258. Bagdad was seized and destroyed by Tartars, and Abdallah, the last of the Abbasides, died amid the ruins of the city.

## CHAPTER III.

*THE HOLY ROMAN EMPIRE OF GERMANY.*

**Central Point: The Reign of Otto the Great—936–973 A.D.**

**English History: Reign of Edgar—959–975 A.D.**

**Scottish History: Reign of Malcolm I.—944–953 A.D.**

1. **The Elector-Dukes.**—The last of the Karlings or Carolingian kings of Germany was Ludwig, surnamed the Child, because he was only six years of age when he succeeded to the throne (899). In his reign Germany, or East Francia as it was still called, was devastated by a great inroad of Magyars (Hungarians), who traversed Bavaria and Franconia, and made their way even into Thuringia and Saxony. Taking advantage of the weakness of the child king, the heads of the great duchies asserted their independence, and often waged war on one another. Thus while the West Franks were firmly consolidated in a single State, their eastern kinsmen were divided into five duchies—Saxony, Franconia, Bavaria, Swabia, and Thuringia. It became the custom to choose one of these dukes as king, with the consent of the others. In this custom originated the elective character of the old German Empire, which it retained down even to the beginning of the nineteenth century, when the Emperor of Germany was transformed into the Emperor of Austria. The powerful dukes formed the College of Electors; and so important was the office considered, that the title of "Elector" superseded that of duke in such well-known cases as the Elector of Saxony, the Elector of Bavaria, and, in later times, the Elector Palatine, and the Elector of Hanover.

2. **Conrad of Franconia.**—On the death of Ludwig in 911, Conrad, Duke of Franconia, was elected to the German sovereignty. But many of the Germans refused to recognize his title, his chief opponent being Duke Henry of Saxony. Conrad had also to fight with the Magyars and with the West Franks, who succeeded in wresting from him Lotharingia (Lorraine), between the Moselle and the Rhine. On his death-

bed in 918, he advised the election of his powerful rival Henry of Saxony as his successor.

**3. Henry the Fowler: 918-936 A.D.**—Henry, surnamed the Fowler, was the first German prince of the Saxon line, and was the real founder of the German monarchy. His surname is said to have been given because the messengers who came to offer him the crown, found him catching birds. The grand object of Henry's policy, in which he was very successful, was to unite under his sway all the German-speaking tribes. The Dukes of Alemannia and Bavaria were reduced beneath his sceptre. Lorraine, too, west of the Rhine, was recovered from the West Franks. But what called his highest powers into play was the continual irruption of the wild Magyars on his eastern frontier. He secured his borders by the establishment of "burgs," or fortified castles, along all the exposed lines of country. Many of these formed centres around which afterwards grew great German cities, famous in the history of art and of commerce. Besides, he organized a powerful force of cavalry to match the Magyars, whose chief strength lay in their horsemen. For this he has been called the founder of knighthood; but it cannot be said that knighthood was the institution of any one man or of any one time. It was rather a national growth, dating from the earliest times of the German nation. No doubt its development received a powerful impulse from this prince, under whose system a high value was set upon a well-equipped and skilful cavalier. Henry died in 936.

**4. Otto the Great: 936-973 A.D.**—Otto, his son, surnamed the Great, succeeded Henry. The ceremonies of coronation and anointment were performed at Aix-la-Chapelle by the archbishops of Cologne and Mayence. Otto came to a troubled throne. Most of the great dukes rose against him; but when they felt the weight of his heavy hand, they soon grew submissive; and he secured their attachment by making them officers of his court. One he made chamberlain, another steward, another cup-bearer, and another marshal.

**5. His attachment to the Church led him to turn his thoughts toward Italy.** He had a selfish motive, too, for in-

terfering there—his desire to gain the imperial crown, which had not been worn by a German prince for more than fifty years. Most of the great Italian nobles were aspirants to the honour; and the Pope, in whose hand lay the power of conferring it, had no easy task to perform in deciding among the rivals. His great object, naturally, was to secure an emperor whose strong hand could defend him, both against his own insolent dependants, and against the Arab plunderers of Southern Italy.

6. Lothar, King of Italy, having died, his beautiful widow Adelaide was seized by one Berengar, who meant by marrying her to secure the kingdom for himself. She implored the aid of Otto, who was not loath to draw sword in the cause of so fair a suppliant. In no long time he subdued Lombardy; and his first wife Edith having been some time dead, he married Adelaide—an alliance by which he gained several steps towards the great object of his ambition.

7. Four years later, he met the Hungarians, mustered in the full strength of their nation, on the Lechfeld near Augsburg, and by a bloody defeat gave a decisive check to their inroads upon Germany. At the same time, "to make assurance double sure," he formed a military district along the exposed frontier; and from this tract—the East March or Austria—have since sprung the bitterest woes of Hungary. Otto defeated the Slavonians between the Elbe and the Oder; and penetrating to the Vistula, was astonished to find upon its banks, occupied by the brave Poles, fields loaded with grain, and markets alive with the hum of commerce.

8. **The Holy Roman Empire: 962 A.D.**—In 961, Otto's second and chief descent on Italy took place. At Milan, he was crowned with the iron circlet of the Lombard kings; and in the following February, at Rome, he received from the hands of Pope John XII. the more distinguished diadem of the Holy Roman Empire, and was hailed as Otto the Great. Just one hundred and sixty-two years had passed since Charles the Great, flushed with the same high distinction, had given the Roman eagle a second head, to denote his double dominion over Rome



EMPIRE OF OTTO THE GREAT.

and Germany. But the empire of Charles had been transient and irregular, the dignity being conjoined sometimes with one and sometimes with another of the kingdoms into which the Frankish monarchy was broken up. The empire of Otto, on the contrary, was enduring. From his day as long as the Holy Roman Empire lasted, and that was till the present century, the emperor was always a German monarch.

9. Otto found a fine field for the use of his newly-acquired power. Pope John, a man steeped in crime, and justly branded in history as the "Infamous," was detected in plots against the emperor whom he had himself crowned, and was forced to flee.



Leo VIII. was elected in his room. With his aid, Otto began wholesome reforms in Italy. Sweeping away the lawless nobles, he placed the large domains under the gentler and juster sway of the bishops. Thus a new day dawned on Italy; and liberty, almost forgotten, began again to flourish. To this change may be traced the growth of those brilliant republics by which the Italy of the Middle Ages was so much distinguished.

10. **Death of Otto: 973 A.D.**—After a third visit to Italy, lasting six years, Otto went back to Germany to die. He drew his last breath in his old Saxon home. Through all the later history of Europe, Germany never lost the place among the nations which he helped to win for her.

11. Otto II., Otto III., and Henry II. were the remaining princes of the Saxon dynasty. The crown then passed to a Frankish line, of whom the first was Conrad II., elected in 1024.

#### NOTE.

§ 1. **Electors.** The seven electors (three ecclesiastical, and four secular) were named in the Golden Bull, a fundamental law of the empire issued by Charles IV. in 1356.

**SUMMARY.**—Under Ludwig, the heads of the great German duchies revolted, and asserted their independence. A king was chosen from those dukes, with the consent of the others, who thence came to be called Electors.—918–936. Henry the Fowler, the first German prince of the Saxon line, was the real founder of the German monarchy. He tried to bring all the German-speaking tribes under his sway; and he resisted the inroads of the Magyars.—936–973. Otto the Great pacified the dukes by making them officers of his court. He subdued Lombardy; routed the Hungarians near Augsburg; and defeated the Slavonians.—962. He received from Pope John XII. the crown of the Holy Roman Empire.—973. After a third visit to Italy, where he had effected some great reforms, Otto died in Germany.

### SAXON, FRANCONIAN, AND HOHENSTAUFEN EMPERORS OF GERMANY.

SAXON.		Conrad I. (of Franconia).....A.D. 911	HOHENSTAUFEN.	Conrad III.....A.D. 1138
{	Henry I. ....	918		Frederic Barbarossa .....1152
	Otto the Great.....	936		Henry VI.....1190–1197
	Otto II.....	973		Philip .. .....1198–1208
	Otto III.....	983		Otto IV. (Guelf).....1198–1215
	Henry II.....	1002		Frederic II.....1212–1250
{	Conrad II.....	1024		Conrad IV.....1250–1254
	Henry III.....	1039		William (of Holland) ...1247–1256
	Henry IV.....	1056		Interregnum.....1256–1273
	Henry V.....	1106		
	Lothar II.....	1125–1137		
FRANCONIAN.				

## CHAPTER IV.

*THE BYZANTINE COURT.*

**Central Point : Reign of John Zimisces—969–975 A.D.**

**English History : Reign of Edgar—959–975 A.D.**

**Scottish History : Reign of Malcolm I.—944–953 A.D.**

1. The Eastern Empire, pressed between two gigantic and growing dominions—the German Empire on the west, and on the east the Caliphate of the Abbasides—nevertheless held its ground as a centre of civilization and refinement. Constantinople still looked loftily down on the barbaric pomp of Aix-la-Chapelle and the Oriental splendour of Bagdad.

2. **War of the Iconoclasts.**—One hundred and sixty years after the death of Justinian, the great controversy about the worship of images, which has already been referred to, began to agitate the mind of Europe. East and West were divided against each other, and within themselves. Leo III., the Isaurian, then Emperor of the East, believing that the victories of Islam were owing more to Christian weakness than to Moslem strength, resolved to drive out the idolatry which had struck its roots so deeply in the Church. At once the factious spirit of the populace, no longer spending itself in trivial fights about the green and the blue jockeys of the Circus, found a new and expansive field of action. All Christendom was severed into two great bands—the image-breakers or iconoclasts, and the image-servers. Pope Gregory III. solemnly denounced the sin of image-breaking, attaching to it the penalty of excommunication. But in spite of threat and curse the work went on, and a gulf, never since bridged over, grew between the Churches of Rome and Constantinople. The strife lasted for one hundred and twenty years. It was lulled for a season, but not settled, by a decision of the second Council of Nicæa in 787, which sought to cast oil on the waves by permitting the veneration, but forbidding the worship of images. It ended in the final triumph of the image party, who were favoured by the Empress Theodora, in the Council

of Constantinople in 842. From this controversy we may date the rise of the Greek Church, whose stronghold is the Russian empire. The natural effect of the schism was to make the Pope lean more strongly on the Western emperor, whose ascendancy in European politics followed as a matter of course.

3. **The Macedonian Dynasty.**—In the latter part of the ninth century, the Eastern Empire passed into the hands of the Macedonian dynasty. Its founder was Basilius, a Macedonian of mean origin, who had raised himself by means of energy and crime. The rule of the Macedonian dynasty for nearly two centuries (867 to 1057) contains some of the most brilliant passages in Byzantine history. Hordes of barbarians burst through the barriers of the empire, and settled there; but they were converted to Christianity, and became bound to the centre by the strongest ties. It was a time of great commercial prosperity. Never were the silk-looms and the wool-marts of Constantinople so busy. Far west in Germany, and northward through all Russia, their beautiful fabrics were prized. Through the bazaars of the Byzantine capital the great tide of traffic from the East poured into Europe.

4. **John Zimisces: 969-975 A.D.**—The ablest of the Macedonian emperors were Leo VI. (886-911), surnamed the Philosopher, and John Zimisces, who, during his reign of six years (969-975), restored the glory of the imperial name by his military exploits. John's most notable achievement was his defeat of the Russians. Swatoslaus, whose bed was a bear-skin, and whose meat was horse-flesh (such were early Russian generals), had swept all before him from the Volga to the Danube. Then piercing the Balkans to Adrianople, he menaced the city of Constantine. John drove him back to the Danube, broke into his strong camp, and sent him with only a wreck of his army, famished and spiritless, back to his native wilds. Then, in sight of all Constantinople, the doughty little hero, climbing a great horse, paced in triumph through the streets with a golden crown on his head, and a garland of laurel in his hand.

5. **Byzantine Splendour.**—The government of the Byzantine

court was a thorough despotism. The emperor, who was dignified with the title "Autocrat," lived in splendid style. Take, as a specimen, the following sketch of an audience granted to some foreign envoys :—

"The ambassadors pass through endless files of body-guards, glittering with brilliant armour and suits of every hue, beneath the rustle of silken banners, over Persian carpets strewn with roses and myrrh, and at last enter the gorgeous palace of the emperor. The air is loaded with perfume; and, when they have reached the top of the marble stair leading to the hall of audience, suddenly the curtains, which fell in thick folds at their very feet, are drawn back, as if by magic, and a scene of bewildering splendour bursts on their gaze. On a golden throne sits the emperor, robed in purple and white. Beside him is his beautiful wife; and a throng of courtiers in white, the colour of the court-dress, encircles the imperial pair. A golden palm-tree overshadows the throne, and resting on its branches are artificial birds of the brightest plumage. The lions carved in gold and silver, that guard the throne, spring forward ramping and roaring with terrific force. High above every sound swells the peal of trumpets. The barbarian envoys, poor Tartars or Slavonians, sink to the earth; while the German knights, remaining erect though awe-struck by the costly glare, feel their great rough hearts dying within them, and every word of their carefully conned speeches passing out of their bewildered brains."

6. **Approach of the Crusades.**—A day was coming, however, when all this magnificence was to change masters. Great events were brooding over Europe, when the Christian centuries passed into their second decade. The Crusades were at hand; and in the wild hurry and crowding of those religious wars Constantinople was destined to suffer heavily.

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NOTE.

§ 2. **The Isaurian.** So called from his birth-place, *Isauria*, in Pisidia, Asia Minor. **Iconoclasts, image-servers.** Called in Greek *eikono-klastai* and *eikono-douloi*.

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**SUMMARY.**—725. A controversy about the worship of images took place. East and West were divided against each other, and within themselves.—842. In the Council of

Constantinople the image party triumphed. The Greek Church took its rise from this controversy.—867–1057. The Macedonian dynasty ruled in the East.—969–975. The most notable event in the reign of John Zimisces was his defeat of the Russians under Swatoslaus. The Byzantine Court was marked by luxury and splendour.

#### MACEDONIAN DYNASTY—EASTERN EMPIRE.

Basilius I.....	A.D. 867	John Zimisces.....	A.D. 969
Leo VI.....	886	Basilius II. and Constantine IX.....	976
Alexander and Constantine VII.....	911	Romanus III.....	1028
Romanus I.....	919	Michael IV.....	1034
Constantine VIII.....	920	Michael V.....	1041
Five Emperors' rule.....	928	Constantine X. and Zoë.....	1042
Romanus II.....	959	Theodora.....	1054
Nicephorus II. (Phocas).....	963	Michael VI.....	1056–57

### CHAPTER V.

#### THE NORSEMEN.

**Central Point: Settlement of Rollo the Vik-ing in Normandy—911 A.D.**

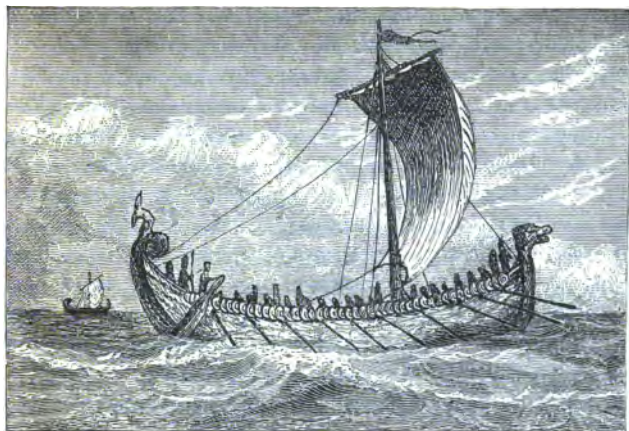
**English History: The Three Norse Kings—1017–1042 A.D.**

**Scottish History: Reigns of Duncan and Macbeth—1033–1056 A.D.**

1. The Emperor Charles the Great, looking out one day over the blue Mediterranean, saw the snake-like galleys of the Norsemen stealing along the horizon; and, as he looked on them, he trembled for his descendants.

2. **The Vik-ings.**—Already for many a year, as soon as the spring sunshine had unlocked the sea, these Vik-ings—sons of the *vic* or creek, hence baymen or creekers—stirred by a restless warlike spirit, had pushed out from the deep, rocky *fiords* of Scandinavia, steering south and south-west. In the name Norway, we still trace their old home; and in that of Normandy, the scene of one of their most successful descents. A branch of the great Teutonic family, they had spread over Denmark, Norway, and Sweden; from which lands, centuries earlier, the famous Goths had descended on Southern Europe.

3. To guard the mouth of the Elbe against the Norsemen, Charles the Great built a strong castle, which served as a nucleus for the great town of Hamburg. Before his reign,



NORSE GALLEY.

their warlike fire had spent itself within the circle of their own lands. We read, in particular, of a desperate battle fought in 740, on the heath of Braavalla, between Harold Goldtooth the Dane, and Sigurd Ring the Swedish king. Harold, old and blind, died like a hero on the field; and Sigurd ruled in Scandinavia.

4. **Ragnar Lodbrok.**—Then, sweeping both shores of the North Sea, they began their wider roving, which have left deep and lasting marks on European history. One of the earliest of these rovers was Ragnar Lodbrok, Sigurd's son. Seized by Saxon Ella, as he was ravaging Lindisfarne, he shouted his war-song to the last, while snakes were stinging him to death in a Northumbrian dungeon. Thus its fierce notes ran :—

“ We struck with our swords,  
 In fifty and one combats :  
 I doubt whether among men there is a king more famous than I.  
 From my youth I have shed blood,  
 And desired an end like this.  
 The goddesses sent by Odin to meet me  
 Call to me, and invite me ;  
 I go, seated among the foremost,  
 To drink mead with the gods.  
 The hours of my life are passing away :  
 I shall die laughing ! ”

5. Words cannot paint the ferocity of these northern warriors. Blood was their passion ; and they plunged into battle like tigers on the spring. Everything that could feed their craving for war they found in their religion and in their songs. Their chief god, Odin, was the ideal of a Norse warrior ; and the highest delight they hoped for in Valhalla, their heaven, was to drink endless draughts of mead from the skulls of their enemies. There was, they thought, no surer passport to heaven than a bloody death amid heaps of slain. And their songs, sung by *Skalds*, when the feast was over, and still heard among the simple fur-clad fishermen, who alone remain to represent the wild Vikings, rang with the clash of swords, and all the fierce music of battle.

6. **The Norsemen Christianized.**—But into the very centre of this dark barbarism sparks of truth fell. Early in the ninth century, Christianity was preached in Sweden with great success by Ansgar, the Apostle of the North, and first Archbishop of Hamburg. A century later, both Sweden and Norway were ruled by Christian kings.

7. **The Norsemen in England: 787 A.D.**—England and France, as was natural from their position, suffered most in the descents of the Norsemen. They began their descents on the English coasts in the end of the eighth century, and during the next seventy years they made themselves masters of Northumbria and East Anglia. While Harold Haarfager (Fair-haired) reigned in Norway (863 to 932), Alfred, King of Wessex, the mightiest of all the Norsemen's foes, was laying the foundation of England's greatness. Little more than a century later, Alfred's crown passed to the Norse Knut, and Norsemen wore it for twenty-four years. Then a little gap, and William, no longer a Norseman, but a Norman—mark well the change of name, for it denotes the deeper change of rough sea-rovers into steel-clad knights—sat as Conqueror on the English throne, and set the wild Norse blood flowing down through the whole line of British sovereigns.

8. **The Norsemen in France: 911 A.D.**—According to the Norse custom of piercing a land to the heart through its rivers,

a swarm of boats, gilt and painted to represent dragons, pushed up the Seine in 885. They besieged Paris, which was heroically defended by Count Odo. Three years later, Charles the Fat, for consenting to buy off the Norsemen, was deposed, and the brave Odo was made king. The Norsemen continued their depredations under their famous leader Rolf the Ganger, called by the French Rollo. Seizing and fortifying Rouen, they made it the centre of a marauding warfare that lasted for years. New arrivals swelled the fleet; the discontented Frankish peasants flocked to Rouen; Paris was again besieged. At length, in 911, Charles the Simple, terror-stricken and helpless, yielded up to Rollo, by a treaty concluded at St. Claire, the coast of Neustria and the rich fields of Bretagne. Baptized as Robert, he swore fealty to Charles, as Duke of Normandy and a peer of France. Already another Norse chief, Hastings, noted for his dash upon England in Alfred's later years, had settled on French soil as Count of Chartres.

9. Thus was the fresh, vigorous stream of Norse blood set flowing into France; and, certainly, of the many elements which have combined to make the French a great nation this is not the least important. Rollo's men, marrying French wives, soon laid aside the rude Norse speech, except a few nautical words, which are still sung out by French captains to French crews. They began to speak the common dialect of northern France. Their love of enterprise turned into new channels. The pirates became ploughmen; but every day they became less rude and less ignorant. They still cherished in their breasts a delight in the daring and the marvellous. Chivalry took deep root among them. Their poets, no longer skin-clad *skalds*, but gay *trouvères*, still sang of war, but in strains that gave the earliest shape and polish to the graceful language in which later French poets have written. In the great arena of the Crusades, no knights dealt harder blows at the Moslems than did the offspring of those rough, yellow-haired Vikings who, but two hundred years before, had swept up the Seine in their dragon-ships, singing the praises of the blood-stained Odin.



10. **The Norsemen in Russia: 862 A.D.**—But not by sea only did the Norsemen spread. The north-east of Europe (now Russia) was filled with Slavonian tribes, by whom two chief cities were founded—Novgorod on Lake Ilmen, and Kieff on the Dnieper. One of these tribes asked the help of some roving Norsemen in settling quarrels among their own chiefs. Ruric the Jute answered the call; and entering Novgorod, he founded a kingdom, out of which has grown the great empire of Russia. Here, as in France, the Norsemen dropped their own language and adopted that of their Slavonic subjects. The Christian worship, according to the forms of the Greek Church, was first made known in Russia under Olga, the daughter-in-law of Ruric; and it was formally adopted as the State religion by her grandson Vladimir I., who was baptized in 980. For seven hundred and thirty-six years (862–1598) Ruric's descendants, of whom the last was Feodor, filled the Russian throne.

11. **Norsemen in the Eastern Empire.**—Through Russia, the Norsemen reached Constantinople; but thither they went not to conquer, but to defend. Vladimir having dismissed his Danish guard, they took service under the Byzantine emperors; and nowhere could be seen finer troops than these Varangian life-guards, with their dark bear-skins and glittering steel, the heavy broadsword swinging by their sides, and the two-edged axe poised on their shoulders. When Harold Hardrada of Norway was a young man and an exile, he rose to be captain of this body, and distinguished himself by many daring exploits. None but Scandinavians were at first allowed to enlist in their ranks; but when William of Normandy scattered the English at Hastings, some of the fugitives who escaped to the East were admitted as recruits.

12. **Norsemen in Southern Italy.**—A few Norman pilgrims, returning in 1016 from the Holy Land, helped the Prince of Salerno in Southern Italy to repel an attack of Saracen pirates. Here then was a new field of warlike enterprise, where sharp swords were sure to bring a good price; and hither flocked over the Alps thousands of Norman adventurers. They at first took service under the Byzantine emperors, whose governors were

struggling to recover Sicily from the Saracens ; but irritated at the mean rewards they received for their hard fighting, they seized Apulia and Calabria for the balance due. Foremost in the warlike band were two brothers from lower Normandy—Robert Wiscard, Duke of Apulia, and Roger, Count of Sicily. Wiscard, a stalwart, handsome Norman, made two inroads on Greece. In the first of these was fought the great battle of Durazzo (1081), where, by a strange destiny, the Varangian life-guards of the Byzantine camp met their countrymen in battle, and were beaten. The conquest of Sicily from the Saracens was achieved by Roger, whose son of the same name was crowned first king of that fertile island. In less than a century, however, this Norman power in the south of Italy melted away ; and the rough Norse warriors, having played their part in history by giving new life to worn-out Europe, soon disappeared from view as a distinct nation.

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#### NOTES.

§ 5. *Odin*. The Anglo-Saxon form of the word is *Woden*, from which we get "Wednesday."

*Valhalla*—that is, "the hall of the slain"—the paradise of heroes killed in battle.

6. *Ansgar*. His Swedish mission lasted from 829 till his death in 864. He had previously preached in Denmark, but without much success.

8. *The Ganger*—(*Gang-er*; *g* hard)—that is, "the goer," or walker. Rolf was so called, it is said, because he was so long-legged that none of the small horses of the North could carry him, and he had therefore to perform his expeditions on foot.

9. *Trouvères*. The *trouvères* of Normandy corresponded to the *troubadours* of Provence. Both words are derived from Fr. *trouver*, to make, invent, find out.

10. *Russia*. The origin of the name Russia is much disputed. Some suppose that one of the Slavonian tribes was called *Rusniak*; others, with more probability, say that it is from a Norse word signifying "Wanderers."

11. *Varangian*, a Greek form of the Norse *Væringers* ("Defenders").

*Hardrada*—that is, strong in rede or counsel.

12. *Durazzo*. See Geographical Appendix.

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**SUMMARY.**—The Vikings of Scandinavia had from an early time steered out from their fjords, and had landed on the coasts of the countries lying to the south and south-west. Until Christianized in the ninth century, the Norse were a fierce people, and delighted in war and slaughter.—787. They landed in England, and some time afterwards held the English throne for twenty-four years.—911. The French king, Charles the Simple, yielded up Neustria and Bretagne to Rollo the Norseman, who became Duke of Normandy, and a peer of France.—862. The Norsemen founded, under Ruric the Jute, a kingdom at Novgorod in the north-east of Europe, out of which has since grown the empire of Russia. Sicily was conquered by the Norse; but in less than a century their power melted away.

## CHAPTER VI.

*LIFE AT THE COURT OF CHARLES THE GREAT.*

1. **The Emperor's Dress.**—Charles the Great wore for his ordinary dress a linen shirt and breeches, a tunic fringed with silk, stripes of cloth around his legs, and leather shoes. In winter, a fur jacket kept him warm. A blue cloak, and a sword with hilt and belt of gold, completed his equipment. On grand occasions, such as high church solemnities or the reception of ambassadors, he shone out in a magnificent costume sparkling with gold and jewels. His love for the national Frank dress was so strong that we find him only twice exchanging it for the Roman garb.

2. We are told that while he was hunting one day with his courtiers, a violent storm of wind and rain came on. The silks and furs of the richly dressed attendants were soaked through; at which the monarch, who was dressed in simple sheep-skin, laughed heartily. On his return to the palace, he mischievously kept them in attendance on him until their fine clothes were all shrunk and ruined. Next day he directed them to appear in these same garments, and took occasion to read the faded courtiers a lecture on their affectation and useless luxury.

3. **His Meals.**—Charles usually dined off four dishes. He was very fond of roast venison, newly killed, and served up to him on the spit. At table, books of history and Augustine's "City of God" were often read to him. In summer, after eating a few apples at his mid-day meal, he drank a cup of wine (he hated drunkenness), and then slept for two or three hours. At night he was very restless: we read of him rising and dressing four or five times in a single night. He held a levee of his friends while dressing in the morning.

4. **His literary Friends.**—He was a first-rate Latin scholar, and knew something of Greek. Astronomy was one of his favourite studies. With the learned men who thronged his court he lived on terms of the most playful intimacy. To put them more at their ease, he was known among them as David;

Alcuin was Horace; Angelbert, the chancellor, a student of Greek, was Homer; another of the set, skilled in moulding verse, was Vergil. So, all royal pomp cast aside, the great monarch argued, wrote, and studied with his lettered friends. Nor did he disdain to take lessons from them. Peter of Pisa taught him grammar; Alcuin gave him lessons in logic and astronomy; and when in his old age a new way of writing came into fashion, the rude Frankish characters being exchanged for Roman letters, he kept models near his pillow that he might practise the new art when he awoke at night.

5. Charles's daughters, whose bad conduct was the source of much grief to him, were occupied at home in the simple domestic duties of the household. When the emperor left home, it was his custom to take his sons and daughters along with him.

6. **Aix-la-Chapelle.**—Aquis Granum (now Aix-la-Chapelle, in German, Aachen), a city of Rhenish Prussia near the Belgian frontier, was the northern capital of Charles's empire. The town was founded by the Romans; and the French name by which we call it is a compound, denoting its sulphur springs (Aix for Aquæ) and the chapel built there by Pipin. This fertile basin, with its pleasant stream and sheltering hills, was a favourite resort of Charles, who spared no pains to make the city worthy of his fame.

7. Here he resolved to build a Palace which should be the wonder of the world. The Pope had given him some magnificent porphyry pillars and mosaic pavements from Ravenna, such as France could not produce. Gathering workmen from every part of the Continent, he soon beheld a splendid building, with gates of the finest brass, and marble walls which enclosed, among many halls and galleries, a library, a college, a theatre, and baths in which one hundred persons could swim at once. Around the main building clustered houses for the courtiers, and halls warmed with stoves where persons of all classes might find shelter and comfort. A wooden gallery connected this great building with the chapel of the city.

8. The Royal College was under the special charge of the great Alcuin. The library there collected preserved for

modern times some rare and precious volumes of ancient literature. Under the fostering care of Charles, education, radiating from this centre, began to flourish everywhere; and soon every province could boast its college or school. Every monastery endowed by the emperor was bound to maintain a school. Among the seminaries of France, Orleans was then specially noted.

9. **Counts of the Palace.**—Although Charles took the advice of the wise and brave men around him in cases of difficulty, yet he does not seem to have had any regular privy council. Under the imperial roof, however, sat the highest court in the realm, often presided over by the great man himself. There the principal courtiers, no mere gaily dressed flutterers round a throne, were obliged to work as hard as the busiest lawyers, in deciding knotty cases of appeal. They were called the Counts of the Palace.

10. **The Great Assembly.**—The Great Assembly of the Franks met twice a year. Of the two meetings, however, the earlier was the more important—the second being rather used to overtake the arrears of State business. The field, thronged with ambassadors from almost all the lands in Europe, was a glittering scene. Here the laws were framed and the taxes for the next year were decreed. For days and nights before the meeting of the council, groups of vassals, laden with bags of grain, or leading horses by the head, poured in from the country, which was budding with early spring, to pay in money or in kind their yearly gifts, corresponding to our modern rents.

11. **Country Life.**—The Capitularies of Charles—that is, the enactments which he framed with the aid of the nobles and the bishops—descend to most minute details. One headed “De Villis” is particularly interesting from the glimpses it gives of the country life at the manors of the emperor. The *judex* (steward) is enjoined to look after the bees and the poultry, the fish-ponds and the byres. Things made with the hand, such as butter, mead, preserved meat, wine, and vinegar, were to be very clean. Hawks’ nests were to be preserved; and swans, peafowl, pheasants, and geese to be kept for ornament. The

servants were not to idle at fairs; the accounts were to be accurately kept; and a general taking of stock was to usher in the New Year. The fruit-trees and flower-gardens received special notice. Apples, pears, plums, chestnuts, filberts were to be grown. A list of some seventy names of flowers and herbs, headed with roses and lilies, appears among the enactments. The gardener was to have Jove's beard—that is, house-leek—growing on the roof of his cottage. The cars were to be covered with well-sewed hides, so that in crossing a river they might not let in water. Flour and wine, a shield and lance, a bow and arrows, were to be stowed in every vehicle. Sunday was to be strictly kept. On that day, none were permitted to work in field or garden, to hunt, to wash clothes, to sew, or to shear; the law courts did not sit; and no cars might be used except for one of three purposes—warlike expeditions, the carriage of victuals, and the burial of the dead.

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#### NOTES.

§ 4. Homer, the great epic poet of Greece, born about 850 B.C. Wrote the *Iliad* and the *Odyssey*. For "Horace" and "Vergil," see p. 60.

11. Capitularies, the laws of the Frankish kings from the time of Charles Martel. From Latin, *capitularium*, a book divided into chapters.

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**SUMMARY.**—Charles the Great usually wore the national dress of the Franks. He dined off four dishes; and at table books were often read to him. He was on intimate terms with the learned men at his court; and from some of them he took lessons. He built a splendid palace at Aix-la-Chapelle, his northern capital. The Counts of the Palace were the chief advisers of the Emperor. The great Assembly of the Franks met twice a year. In the Capitularies of Charles, interesting details are given of country life at that time.

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#### GREAT NAMES OF THE THIRD PERIOD.

**ALOUIN.**—Born at York, 735—pupil of Bæda—lived much at the court of Charles the Great, whom he taught—wrote poetry, theology, and elementary science—died 804.

**PAUL WARNEFRID.**—Born about 730—called the "Deacon"—an Italian—connected first with the Lombard Desiderius—taught Greek at the court of Charles the Great—a poet and historian—chief work, "History of the Lombards."

**EGINHARD.**—An Austrasian Frank—secretary of Charles the Great—wrote a life of that monarch and other historical works—thought to have died about 844.

**JOHN SCOTUS ERIGENA.**—Born in Ireland—the only learned layman of the Dark Ages—lived chiefly in France about the middle of the ninth century—theology and metaphysics were his favourite studies—died about 886.

**ALFRED.**—King of England—translated into Saxon the Psalms, Bæda's History, and Æsop's Fables—like Charles the Great, a patron of learned men—died 901.

**AVICENNA** (or **ABEN SINA**).—Born near Bokhara, in Central Asia, 980—a great Arabian physician and philosopher—for centuries his great medical work, "The Canon," continued to be the standard authority even in Europe—chief philosophical work, "The Remedy"—died 1037.

**GUIDO D'AREZZO**.—Born at Arezzo in Tuscany, toward close of tenth century—a Benedictine monk—famous as the inventor of our musical notation—his work, "Micrologus," describes his plan of writing and teaching music.

## CHRONOLOGY OF THE THIRD PERIOD.

### EIGHTH CENTURY—*continued*.

Battle of Roncevauxes.....	A. D. 778
Irene empress of the East.....	780
Haroun-al-Raschid caliph.....	786
Seventh General Council (at Nicæa).....	787
First landing of the Norsemen in England.....	787
Charles the Great crowned at Rome.....	800

### NINTH CENTURY.

Charles's death.....	814
Egbert sole ruler of England.....	828
Battle of Fontenaille.....	841
Treaty of Verdun.....	843
Ruric the Jute founds the Russian empire.....	862
Alfred the Great king of England.....	871

### TENTH CENTURY.

Rollo the Norseman obtains Neustria and Bretagne.....	911
Emir-al-Omra first appointed.....	935
Otto the Great emperor of Germany.....	936
Otto crowned emperor of the West.....	962
John Zimisces emperor of the East.....	969-75
Otto's death.....	973
Capet dynasty begins in France.....	987

### ELEVENTH CENTURY.

Knut the Norseman on the English throne.....	1016
Normans conquer Southern Italy.....	1040
Edward the Confessor restores the Saxon line in England.....	1042
Bagdad taken by the Turks.....	1055
Emir-al-Omra chosen from the Seljuk Turks.....	1058
Jerusalem taken by the Turks.....	1065
Norman conquest of England.....	1066
Hildebrand becomes Pope Gregory VII.....	1073
Guelf and Ghibelin feud begins.....	1077
Siege of Durazzo by the Normans.....	1081

## Fourth Period.

From the beginning of the Crusades to the  
Establishment of Swiss Independence.

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### CHAPTER I.

#### *THE FIRST AND SECOND CRUSADES.*

**Central Point:** Jerusalem taken by Crusaders—1099 A.D.

**English History:** Reigns of William II.—1087-1100; and Stephen—1135-1154 A.D.

**Scottish History:** Reigns of Edgar—1097-1107; and David I.—1124-1153 A.D.

1. **Origin of the Crusades.**—Jerusalem, the cradle of the Christian faith, suffered cruel insults at the hands of the Mahometans. Hakem, third of the Fatimite caliphs of Egypt, razed the Church of the Resurrection in 1009, and spared no pains to destroy the rock-cave, which was pointed out as the Holy Sepulchre. Matters grew worse when the Seljuk Turks seized the city (1058). Christian pilgrims, flocking thither in thousands during the eleventh century, were cruelly maltreated by them. No Christian could pass the gates without first paying a piece of gold to these Tartar conquerors. Every day brought back to Europe weary palmers, who had been scoffed at and abused by the Moslems. This was borne for a time, but it soon grew intolerable; and the indignation, burning deep and long in the heart of Christendom, at last found utterance in the wild eloquence of Peter the Hermit.

2. **Peter the Hermit.**—This man, said to have been a native





EUROPE AND THE EAST—THE CRUSADES.

of Amiens, had been a soldier in his youth. On the death of his wife he retired broken-hearted to a hermit's cell; from which, however, his innate love of change drove him on a pilgrimage to the Holy Land. Returning thence full of anger at the degradation of the sacred ground, he obtained leave from Pope Urban II.—who is believed by some to have been the real originator of the movement—to call all true Christians to arms. As the Hermit passed through Italy and France, a fleshless spectre clad in mean raiment, with bare head and feet, and staggering under a heavy crucifix, his fierce war-cry awoke an echo in millions of hearts.

3. **Council of Clermont: 1095 A.D.**—Within the same year two general councils were called by Pope Urban—one at Placentia in Northern Italy, the other at Clermont in Auvergne. At the latter, both the Pope and the Hermit spoke in words of

fire. With one voice all who heard cried out in the old French, *Dieu li volt!*—"God wills it;" and few there were who left the old market-place on that day without a red cross on the shoulder, to mark them as soldiers in the sacred cause.

### THE FIRST CRUSADE.

(1096-1099 A.D.)

4. **The first Rush: 1096 A.D.**—The first movement of the Crusaders was a mad and aimless rush. A rabble of three hundred thousand, comprising not men alone, but women and children, gathered under Peter, and a soldier called Walter the Penniless. They passed through Germany with no achievement but the murder and robbery of thousands of Jews. Their plundering aroused the rage of the Hungarians and Bulgarians, who set upon them; and it was with sorely thinned and broken ranks that they reached Constantinople. The Emperor Alexius persuaded them to fix their camp on the Asiatic shore of the Bosphorus. Moving thence towards Nicæa in Bithynia, they were, all but a very few, cut to pieces by the Turks.

5. **Battle of Dorylæum: 1097 A.D.**—But an army, fit to redeem the character of the West, was marshalling fast. The kings as yet held aloof, in person at least. Rufus of England was too fond of his money-bags; while Henry of Germany, and Philip of France, both bitter foes of the Pope, were not likely to arm at the call of one whom they hated. The great captain of the First Crusade (War of the Cross) was Godfrey of Bouillon, or Boulogne. There were, besides, among the chiefs Robert of Normandy (brother of William Rufus), Hugh the brother of the French king, Stephen of Blois, and Bohemund of Tarentum (the son of Robert Wiscard). Nine months were consumed in mustering the great army of more than half a million, and in leading it by different routes to Constantinople. Having crossed the strait, the Crusaders moved upon Nicæa, which fell after a siege of seven weeks. At Dorylæum was fought one of the greatest cavalry battles the world has ever seen. There, considerably more than one hundred thousand Turkish horse were scattered before the lances of the Christian knights; and Soly-

man, sultan of the Turks, was forced to fall back in rapid flight. But all this glory was purchased by much suffering. Thirst was the worst woe that befell the Christians : we are told that once, when water was found after days of scorching drought, three hundred of them drank till they died. They threaded the rocky wilds of Taurus, fainting with the weight of their armour under the burning sun ; and at last saw the fair turrets of the Syrian Antioch set in the emerald meadows that line the Orontes.

**6. Siege of Antioch : 1098 A.D.**—Here the war raged anew. The siege was pushed on amidst the worst miseries of winter, famine, and disorganization, until, by the treachery of a Syrian officer, the Crusaders were enabled, one dark stormy night, to surprise the town. A Saracen army, led by the Prince of Mossul, advanced to the rescue, but was repulsed with great slaughter ; and Bohemund of Tarentum was made prince of the captured city.

**7. Capture of Jerusalem : 1099 A.D.**—After a delay of some months at Antioch, the Crusaders, now reduced to twenty thousand foot and fifteen hundred horse, moved southwards toward Jerusalem. They ought to have reduced the great stronghold of Acre with its vast granaries as they passed ; but, eager to crown their enterprise with the capture of the Holy City, they contented themselves with extorting a promise from the Emir of Acre, that, if Jerusalem fell, he would give them up his keys. At last the capital of Palestine, lovely even in her desolation, rose in their view. The knights, springing from their saddles, shed tears of mingled joy and grief. Barefooted and weeping, the little band advanced. Under a burning sky, and beside waterless river-courses, they fought for five long weeks before Godfrey and his stormers stood victorious within the walls. The massacre of seventy thousand Moslems, and the burning of the Jews in their synagogue, stained the glory of the conquerors.

**8. Godfrey made King.**—A kingdom of Jerusalem being then founded, Godfrey was elected king. But modestly and wisely he chose rather the humbler title of Protector of the Holy Sepulchre. The opening of his reign was signalized by

the battle of Ascalon, in which he defeated the Sultan of Egypt. After this victory, which closed the First Crusade, many of the actors in the great drama went home. Among these was Peter the Hermit, whose chequered life found a close in the abbey of Huy, founded by himself on the bank of the Meuse.

9. The last great act of Godfrey's life was the enactment of a code of feudal laws, called the "Assize of Jerusalem." He had scarcely shaped these, and seen their earliest working, when death cut him off in the first year of his reign.

### THE SECOND CRUSADE

(1147-1149 A.D.)

10. **Knights Hospitallers and Templars.**—Before the Second Crusade began, forty-eight years passed, during which the infant kingdom of Jerusalem was upheld chiefly by two orders of military monks—the Hospitallers and the Templars. The former, whose black mantle was embroidered with a silver cross, derived their name from their being at first attached to a hospital in Jerusalem, dedicated to St. John. The Templars, calling themselves so from their residence close to the site of Solomon's Temple, sprang from a little society of nine French knights, who bound themselves by an oath to pass chaste and humble lives in constant war against the enemies of the faith. They received the sanction of Baldwin II. in 1118.

11. **Fall of Edessa: 1146 A.D.**—When the news reached Europe that Edessa beyond the Euphrates, one of the strong outposts of the faith against the encroaching Moslems, had fallen before the Prince of Mossul, the smouldering fire began to blaze anew. St. Bernard took the place which had been filled by Peter the Hermit.

12. **St. Bernard.**—Born in Burgundy in 1091, Bernard became a monk in early youth. As an abbot, he was noted for his austerity and abstinence. But the spirit within lived and glowed, in spite of pale cheek and wasted frame. When, in 1146, he addressed a countless crowd of French knights and nobles, urging them to another crusade, the old war-cry, "God



KNIGHTS TEMPLARS.

wills it," rang through the air; and so great was the rush for the Cross, that he and his priests were obliged to tear up their vestments in order to supply the eager soldiery with the sacred symbol.

13. **Conrad's March: 1147 A.D.**—Bernard's eloquence enlisted in the war Louis VII. of France and Conrad III. of Germany. Their combined armies, amounting to three hundred thousand, took the same route as the first Crusaders had taken—through Germany and Hungary, right on to Constantinople. Conrad's army being the first to arrive, crossed the strait into Asia Minor. The Emperor Manuel, who was Conrad's personal enemy, cut off his supplies, and his army fell an easy prey to the Saracens among the mountains of Cappadocia. Conrad returned in despair to Constantinople.

14. **Disastrous Close: 1149 A.D.**—The troops of Louis, passing in the winter of 1148 to the banks of the Meander, gained a slight triumph over the Saracens. But when the gates of Attalia, where they had hoped to find a refuge, were shut against them, the heroic army, storm-beaten, famine-worn, and

lessening every day, struggled on to Antioch. The entry of the two monarchs into Jerusalem—Conrad had now joined Louis—was a gleam of bright promise, reviving the hopes of the Crusaders. But their first undertaking, the siege of Damascus, proved a miserable failure, and the Second Crusade closed in gloom. Nearly forty years elapsed before the third began.

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#### NOTES.

§ 1. **Fatimite**, descended from Ali and Fatima, the daughter of Mahomet.

**Seljuk Turks**. See p. 103, § 2, and Note.

5. **Rufus of England**, William II., son of the Conqueror.

**Godfrey of Bouillon**. Born about 1061, in Brabant. To provide himself with money for the First Crusade, he mortgaged his dukedom to the Bishop of Liège.

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**SUMMARY**.—Christian pilgrims flocking to the Holy Sepulchre at Jerusalem were insulted and maltreated by the Turks. Peter the Hermit went through Italy and France stirring up the people to arms.—1095. The First Crusade was proclaimed at the Council of Clermont.—1096. The first movement was a failure; most of the Crusaders were cut to pieces.—1097. An army, under Godfrey of Bouillon, defeated the Turks at Dorylæum.—1098. Antioch was besieged and captured.—1099. After five weeks' siege, Jerusalem was taken by Godfrey, who was elected king. The Knights Hospitallers and Templars were instituted early in the twelfth century.—1146. The taking of Edessa by the Moslems led a French monk, St. Bernard, to set on foot a Second Crusade.—1147–1149. Louis VII. of France and Conrad III. of Germany moved with their armies toward Constantinople. Conrad's march through Asia Minor was stopped by the Emperor Manuel cutting off his supplies. Conrad and Louis pushed on to Jerusalem. They besieged Damascus; but this proved a failure, and the Crusade closed disastrously.

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## CHAPTER II.

### *THE THIRD AND FOURTH CRUSADES.*

**Central Point: The Fall of Acre—1191 A.D.**

**English History: Reigns of Henry II.—1154–1189; and Richard I.—1189–1199 A.D.**

**Scottish History: Reign of William the Lion—1165–1214 A.D.**

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#### THE THIRD CRUSADE

(1189–1192 A.D.)

1. **Jerusalem taken by Saladin: 1187 A.D.**—When the news came that Jerusalem had fallen before Saladin, the great Sultan of Egypt, and that the golden cross, which had glittered for eighty-eight years on the Mosque of Omar. marking its trans-

formation into a Christian church, had been trampled in the streets, Europe for the third time girt herself for a holy war.

2. First, from the Italian ports there sailed out a large fleet, thronged with eager soldiers, who at once upon their arrival proceeded to aid the Christians in the siege of Acre, which had yielded to Saladin.

3. But a greater movement followed. The three great Western princes took the Cross—Richard I. of England, Philip Augustus of France, and Frederic Barbarossa ("Redbeard") of Germany. A tax, called Saladin's tithe, was laid upon Christendom to meet the expenses of the war. As was usual in all the Crusades, complete absolution was promised to every soldier who struck a blow at the Moslem.

4. **March of Frederic: 1189 A.D.**—While Richard and Philip were filling their purses and mustering their armies, Frederic, starting from Ratisbon, pushed by the usual land-route to Adrianople, crossed the Hellespont, and pierced right through Asia Minor, routing the Turks, and conquering Iconium. But his career of victory was stayed in Cilicia, where he was drowned, while bathing one summer day in a river. A remnant of his army—some five thousand ragged and foot-sore men—reached the camp of the besiegers before Acre.

5. **Siege of Acre.**—The siege of that stronghold was pushed on in spite of terrific losses. For two long years a vague hope of aid from Europe upheld the hearts of the Christians. The Turkish garrison was renewed again and again, whenever the sea was left open. Nine battles were fought under the shadow of Mount Carmel with changing success. Thousands on thousands of the crusading soldiery laid down their lives before the ramparts; but still the camp was filled with new hosts, burning with martial fury.

6. **Arrival of Richard and Philip: 1190 A.D.**—The armies of Richard and Philip, amounting together to one hundred thousand, were transported by sea to the Holy Land, the former sailing from Marseilles, the latter from Genoa. They spent the winter together at Messina in Sicily—not indeed on the most friendly terms. Richard delayed, besides, at Cyprus, where he

was married to Berengaria of Navarre. He dethroned Isaac, king of that island, for treating some of his shipwrecked sailors badly. It was, therefore, nearly a year after their setting out that the royal warriors appeared before Acre; Philip first, Richard shortly afterwards. New vigour stirred in the besiegers; and Saladin must have trembled for his hold upon the key of Syria, when he saw the plain whitened with a new camp of many thousand tents. One glimpse of the great Saracen's character must not be passed by. Even at so great a crisis, this generous foe sent frequent presents of pears and snow to cool the fever, of which Richard and Philip lay sick in their tents. Ere long the broken ramparts of the city yielded to the Crusaders, and the Sultan fell back toward the south (1191).

7. The story of the Crusades, and of this third one especially, has been coloured with the gayest tints of romance; and we are apt to be dazzled by a deceptive glare in reading of the noble achievements of the soldiers of the Cross. The truth is, that the crusading armies contained many of the worst ruffians in Europe. There were, no doubt, noble exceptions. But very few were inspired by motives of real piety. The hope of plunder and a reckless love of adventure were the mainsprings of the war. The Cross met the eye everywhere throughout the camp, on banners, shields, and surcoats, sparkling over tent-doors, and shapen into the hilts of swords; but it was not in the hearts of the soldiery; and this being so, it is no wonder that the worst vices were rampant among them.

8. **Advance of Richard—His Captivity: 1192-1194 A.D.**—Soon after the fall of Acre, Philip, having quarrelled with Richard, returned to Europe. Richard then pushed southward along the sea-coast, fighting his way for eleven days amid the unceasing rattle of the brass kettle-drums, summoning new hosts of Saracens to the front. He found Joppa and Ascalon dismantled. Next spring he advanced within twenty miles of Jerusalem; but turned away from what most likely would have been the crowning achievement of the war. The sad havoc already made in his ranks, the discontent of his allies, and news from England of danger menacing his crown, are assigned as reasons for this



step. On his way home, he fell into the hands of the Emperor Henry VI., who discovered that Richard was in alliance with his enemies, and kept him in secret prisons for nearly two years.

9. Richard's departure from Palestine was the signal for a peace which promised to be lasting ; but the death of Saladin, in 1193, gave a new turn to the history of the Holy Land.

10. The rise of the Teutonic Order of Knighthood dates from the Third Crusade, a few German knights having united to tend the sick and wounded in the camp before Acre.

### THE FOURTH CRUSADE

(1194-1197 A.D.)

11. **Schemes of Henry VI. : 1194 A.D.**—The Emperor Henry VI., gaoler of King Richard, had his eye upon Sicily as a key to the conquest of the Byzantine Empire. He had a claim to Sicily in right of his wife Constance, heiress of the last Norman king of Naples and Sicily, who had died in 1190. Instead of boldly asserting this claim, he organized a crusade, and used that as a cloak of his real purpose. Reserving a body of forty thousand men under his own command to execute his secret design on Sicily, he divided the rest of his forces into two parts. The one, crossing the Danube, marched to Constantinople, and sailed in Greek ships to Acre ; the other, setting out from the Baltic ports, did not reach Palestine till some time later.

12. **Capture of Beyrout.**—The Syrian Christians, just beginning to taste the sweets of peace, at first looked coldly on their brethren, who came, sword in hand, from Europe. But a movement of the Saracens, resulting in the fall of Joppa, scattered all thoughts of disunion. Banding themselves together, the Christian soldiery waited only for their friends who were making the long sea passage, and then besieged Beyrout. The capture of this great city enriched the Crusaders, and set free nine thousand Christian prisoners, who had long lain in its dungeons.

13. **Sicily united with Germany : 1194 A.D.**—In the meantime, Henry had succeeded in his scheme for the conquest of Sicily,

and the kingdom of the Two Sicilies was united with the German Empire. Having accomplished this, Henry sent a third army to Syria. Its arrival raised high hopes that Jerusalem would soon be freed from the Moslems. But the approach of winter delayed the great enterprise.

**14. Siege of Thoron: 1196 A.D.**—The siege of Thoron near the coast was undertaken instead. German miners tunnelled through the rock on which it stood; and the walls were shaking when the besieged sued for quarter. It was refused; and with the courage of despair the defenders renewed their resistance. The tide turned. Rumours of an advancing Saracen host struck terror into the hearts of the Crusaders. In the dead of night their leader fled, and next day saw the whole army, scared by a storm of thunder and lightning, and fiercely hunted by their Moslem foes, scattered in headlong flight on the way to Tyre.

**15. Death of Henry: 1197 A.D.**—This was the miserable end of the Fourth Crusade. Other operations might have been undertaken; but the death of the Emperor Henry, whose gold had been the mainstay of the war, called the adventurers home.

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#### NOTES.

§ 1. Mosque of Omar. See p. 80, § 14, and Note.

10. Teutonic Order. This order was founded by Duke Frederic of Swabia, with the approval of Pope Clement III. and the Emperor Henry VI. Teutonic is applied to the family of nations which includes Germans, Scandinavians, English, and Dutch. It is often used, however, as synonymous with German.

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**SUMMARY.**—1187. Jerusalem was taken by Saladin, and another Crusade was set on foot.—1189. Frederic Barbarossa marched into Asia Minor and took Iconium, but died soon afterwards. His troops joined the army that was besieging Acre.—1190. The arrival of Richard of England and Philip of France encouraged the besiegers.—1191. The city was at last taken.—1192–1194. On his return from Palestine, Richard was captured by the emperor, Henry VI., and was kept prisoner for nearly two years.—1194. Henry, having designs on Sicily, organized a Fourth Crusade, as a cloak for his purpose. The Crusaders took Beyrout. Henry succeeded in conquering Sicily, and it was united with Germany.—1196. Thoron was besieged; but the Crusaders were put to flight by the Saracens.

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## CHAPTER III.

*THE LAST CRUSADES.*

**Central Point:** The Latin Empire at Constantinople—1204 A.D.

**English History:** Reign of Henry III.—1216–1272 A.D.

**Scottish History:** Reigns of Alexander II. and Alexander III.—1214–1286 A.D.

## THE FIFTH CRUSADE.

(1202–1204 A.D.)

1. The Fifth Crusade is sometimes reckoned as the fourth, the expedition of the Emperor Henry being omitted on the ground that its real purpose was the conquest of Sicily. The Fifth Crusade might be excluded for a similar reason; for it was diverted from its purpose to the conquest of Constantinople, and in fact it never reached the Holy Land. It originated in letters issued by Pope Innocent III., who wished it to be directed in the first instance against Egypt. But more powerful than the Pope's letters was the simple eloquence of Fulk of Neuilly, a humble French curate. At a great tournament, he preached the Crusade with such a trumpet-tongue, that the lists were deserted by the knights, who thronged to take the badge of the Holy War.

2. **Capture of Zara.**—With the Doge of Venice, "the blind old Dandolo," a bargain was struck for ships, and Venice was named as the place of muster. But when the day of muster came, so few of the barons had arrived, that they were not able to raise the sum demanded for the hire of the ships. In their distress they accepted the offer of the Doge, to free them from all claims if they would retake for Venice the revolted city of Zara. It lay in Dalmatia, and had sought the protection of the Hungarian king. In five days it was forced to yield to the arms of the Crusaders.

3. Having once turned aside from the real object of the expedition, they easily took a second step of the same kind. Isaac, Emperor of the East, having been deposed and blinded by his

brother Alexius, his son, another Alexius, came to the crusading chiefs imploring help. Some were for sailing instantly to Palestine ; but a stronger party resolved to grant the aid. A magnificent fleet, sweeping down the Adriatic and up the *Ægean*, anchored within sight of the glittering turrets of Constantinople.

**4. Capture of Constantinople : 1203 A.D.**—Fixing their camp at Scutari on the Asiatic side, the Crusaders prepared to pass the rapid Bosphorus. The knights crossed in flat-bottomed boats, standing lance in hand beside their horses. The opposite shore was safely occupied ; and at the same time the Venetian galleys broke the boom across the entrance of the harbour. And then the siege began. Ever foremost in the fight was the blind old Doge, giving life and spirit to every movement of the besiegers. For eleven days (July 7–18) there was a feeble resistance, and then Alexius the usurper fled with all the gold he could lay his hands on.

**5. The Latin Empire : 1204 A.D.**—Isaac was restored to his throne ; but a quarrel arising between the Crusaders and the Greeks, war began anew. A second siege of Constantinople ended in the complete triumph of the besiegers. Baldwin, Count of Flanders, was elected emperor over one-fourth of the eastern dominions, for Isaac and his son were both dead. Thus was founded the Latin Empire, which lasted for nearly sixty years. The remaining shares of the Eastern dominions were divided between the republic of Venice and the nobles of France. A shadow of the Greek Empire was maintained at Nicæa till 1261, when the Nicæan emperor recovered Constantinople.

#### THE CHILDREN'S CRUSADE

(1212 A.D.)

**6. Stephen of Vendôme.**—One of the strangest sights of the Middle Ages was the Children's Crusade of 1212. A shepherd boy, Stephen of Vendôme, gave out that God in a vision had bestowed on him bread, and had sent him with a letter to the King of France. Round him gathered thirty thousand children of about twelve years of age. Boys were there, and girls

in boys' clothes, on horseback and afoot. Neither the tears nor the prayers of their parents could turn them from their mad design. The strange flame spread through all France ; from castle and from hut the little ones flocked to follow the car of Stephen. With wax candles in their hands, and clad in pilgrim dress, they moved, singing hymns, over the hot dusty plains of Provence, upheld through all the toils and terrors of the way by the wild hope that the waters of the sea, drying up before them, would open a path to the Holy Land. Robbed by the way, they were yet more pitilessly cheated in Marseilles. Two merchants agreed to take them to Palestine "for the love of God." The children set sail in seven ships. Two of these were wrecked, and all on board lost. The other five bore their precious freight to Egypt, where all were sold as slaves. It is some consolation to know that the rascal merchants were soon after hanged in Sicily.

7. About the same time two armies of children, gathering in Germany, crossed the Alps to Genoa and Lombardy, where they were scattered and lost, very many of these too falling into the cruel hands of slave-dealers.

### THE SIXTH CRUSADE

(1227-1229 A.D.)

8. **Frederic II. of Germany.** — The next great movement was headed by the Emperor Frederic II. Urged by Pope Gregory IX., the emperor embarked for the Holy Land ; but discontent among his troops, or, if we are to believe some, an outbreak among them of infectious disease, caused him to turn back, after he had been at sea only three days. In a fit of wrath, the Pope excommunicated him ; but next year, in spite of the pontiff's continued ill-temper, he set sail for Palestine, induced chiefly by the offered alliance of the Sultan of Egypt.

9. **Truce with the Sultan.**—The wrath of the Pope, following him to Palestine, estranged from him all the clergy of that land. Nevertheless, he followed up his plans with consummate skill, and won from his friend the sultan, by fair words and good fellowship, that for which so much blood had been spilled

in vain. A truce for ten years was made between the princes. Jerusalem, Bethlehem, and all the towns from Joppa to Acre, were given up to Frederic, almost the only stipulation being that the Mosque of Omar should remain open to Moslem worshippers. This gaining of the object for which the Crusaders had striven from the first, ought to have filled Christendom with joy ; but a sullen silence hung upon the clergy : and the excommunicated prince, entering Jerusalem in triumph with his Teutonic knights, was forced, for want of a priest to perform the ceremony, to place the crown on his head with his own hands. His reign in the East was short, for the schemes of the unforgiving Pope against his empire in Europe led him to return in haste to Italy.

#### THE SEVENTH CRUSADE (1248-1254 A.D.)

10. **Saint Louis of France.**—Louis IX. of France, one of the few monarchs honoured with the title of Saint, led the Seventh Crusade. In 1244, Jerusalem had again become the prey of the Moslems, and St. Louis resolved to rescue it from their hands. As he left the French shore with a large force, the notes of a sacred anthem rose from the ships. After spending the winter at Cyprus, where his soldiers wasted their strength in riotous living, he anchored before Damietta late in spring. Leaping sword in hand into the sea amid a deadly rain of arrows, the brave king led the way to the shore. The panic-struck Moslems left Damietta to its fate.

11. **Louis a Prisoner: 1250 A.D.**—But pestilence began to thin the ranks of the Crusaders ; and when Louis moved inland, a sudden rally of the flying foe met his straggling files. The death of his brother and the flower of his army made his dearly-bought victory worse than a defeat. A retreat to Damietta was resolved on ; but Louis, who nobly refused to leave his broken force, was made prisoner. Nor was he released until he agreed to restore Damietta, and to pay 400,000 golden pieces. He lingered at Acre for four years longer, until the death of his mother obliged him to return to France.

## THE EIGHTH AND LAST CRUSADE.

(1270-1272 A.D.)

12. Sixteen years later, another Crusade left France, bound, not for Palestine, but for Africa—the object of St. Louis, its leader, being to convert the Prince of Tunis with the sword. The Moslem troops gave way before him; but a deadlier foe descended on the French host, when plague, made worse by the unburied corpses of its victims, began its ravages. King Louis himself sickened and died.

13. **Prince Edward of England.**—Edward of England, afterwards Edward I., was the last of the crusading princes. Arriving in Africa soon after the death of Louis, he lost no time in leading his little force to the Holy Land. But the glory of the war was past. A march into Phœnicia and a massacre of the Moslems at Nazareth were almost his only doings. His headquarters were at Acre. The stab of a poisoned dagger (we are told that his wife saved him by sucking the wound) warned him to leave the land; and after having spent in all some eighteen months in aimless enterprise, he returned to England to conquer Wales and to vex Scotland.

14. **Destruction of Acre: 1291 A.D.**—Acre, which after the loss of Jerusalem was the centre of the European power in the East, grew to be a disgrace to the name of Christianity. But its lust and riot were buried in its ruins when, after a siege of thirty-three days, the heavy engines of the sultan pounded its strong defences to dust, and opened the way for the Moslem stormers. Sixty thousand Christians were slain or enslaved; and of the few who escaped to their ships, the greater part perished in the waves before they could reach the friendly coast of Cyprus.

**SUMMARY.**—1202-1204. The Fifth Crusade was originated by Pope Innocent III., and was eloquently preached by Fulk of Neuilly. The revolted city of Zara, in Dalmatia, was taken by the Crusaders for Venice.—1203. Constantinople was captured with the aid of the Venetians.—1212. A Children's Crusade was undertaken; but it ended miserably, most of the children being sold as slaves.—1227-1229. Frederic II. of Germany set out on a Sixth Crusade. He made a truce with the sultan for ten years. Jerusalem and several other towns were given up to Frederic.—1248-1254. St. Louis of France led a Seventh Crusade. He was taken prisoner at Damietta, and four years afterwards he returned to France.—1270-1272. The Eighth and last Crusade was led by St. Louis to Africa. He died of the plague, and Edward of England led the troops into the Holy Land; but little was accomplished.—1291. Acre was destroyed by the sultan after a siege of thirty-three days.

## CHRISTIAN KINGS OF JERUSALEM.

Godfrey of Bouillon .....	A.D. 1099	Sibyl—then his son Baldwin V.	1185
Baldwin I .....	1100	Guy de Lusignan .....	1186
Baldwin II .....	1118	Henry of Champagne .....	1192
Fulk of Anjou .....	1131	Amauri de Lusignan .....	1197
Baldwin III .....	1144	Jeanne de Brienne .....	1210
Amauri (or Almeric) .....	1162	Emperor Frederic II .....	1229-1239
Baldwin IV .....	1173		

## CHAPTER IV.

*THE ALBIGENSES.*

Central Point: The Battle of Muret—1213 A.D.

English History: Reign of John—1199-1210 A.D.

Scottish History: Reign of William the Lion—1174-1224 A.D.

1. The Papacy reached its noonday under Innocent III., the patron of the Fifth Crusade, who wore the tiara from 1198 to 1216. He it was who obliged King John to lay the crown of England at the foot of the papal chair. But we have here to speak briefly of his dealings with the Albigenses of Southern France.

2. **The Albigenses.**—This people, dwelling among the vines of Languedoc, spoke the rich musical Provençal—the Romance dialect of Southern France. An intelligent and accomplished race, they looked with contempt on the vices of their clergy; as well they might, for their bishops were reprobates of high rank, and their curates mere ignorant hinds taken from the workshop or the plough. They hungered after a deeper teaching and a holier discipline than was common in their day. Having withdrawn from the established pale, they formed themselves into a separate religious society, in which they strove to realize on earth the divine ideal of the Church, as a holy nation, a peculiar people, a brotherhood of saints.

3. **Their Doctrines.**—With some peculiar tenets of their own, which subjected them, not altogether without ground, to the charge of a heretical tendency, they were yet in some points



faithful witnesses for the truth, and pioneers of that great Reformation struggle that was yet to come. In an age of rampant superstition and lifeless formalism, they testified both by word and by deed for the spirituality of religion, and of the worship of God. Even their errors were probably in large measure only a reaction from the prevailing evils of the times. They denied the doctrine of the real presence in the Sacrament of the Supper. They denounced all images as idols. Their worship was simple and unadorned ; and sumptuous ceremonial and gorgeous priestly vestments were alike eschewed. The holy volume lay open on the table, which, in their places of worship, supplanted the altar ; and the simple preaching of the word formed the most prominent feature of the service. They abounded in mortifications and fastings ; and even their enemies confessed that they were distinguished by a strictness of life which was then rare, and which bordered on ascetic severity. They have often been classed with the Waldenses, who cherished the truths of Christianity in singular simplicity and purity, during long ages of darkness, among the valleys of Piedmont.

4. **Outbreak of War: 1208 A.D.** — Innocent, looking with jealousy on these men, sent monks to watch them. One of these legates was stabbed to death by a retainer of Raymond VI., Count of Toulouse ; and then the war blazed out. It was supported by Philip Augustus of France, the crusading king, who saw in it a means of extending his authority over Languedoc.

5. Wearing a cross on the breast, and encouraged by unbounded promises of absolution, the Crusaders flocked from all parts of France to a field of plunder and bloodshed so near and so promising. The main body of the army descended the valley of the Rhône, and entered Languedoc by the Mediterranean shore. Tumultuous mobs, armed with clubs and scythes, followed in their track.

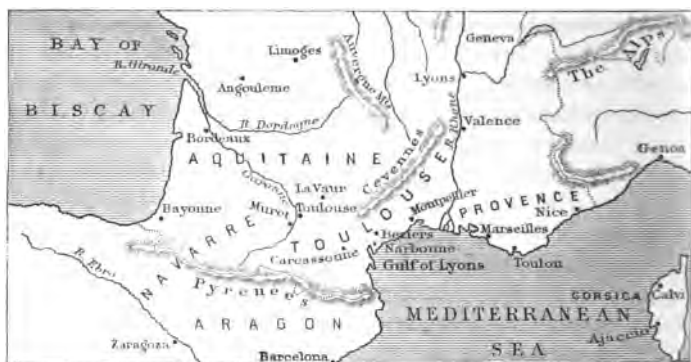
6. **Capture of Béziers: 1209 A.D.**—When he saw that war was inevitable, the Count of Toulouse submitted to the papal legate, and underwent sore humiliation to prove his penitence. But his nephew, young Raymond Roger, showed a bolder front

Dividing his forces between his strongest cities, Béziers and Carcassonne, this young noble withdrew to the latter to await the attack. The citizens of Béziers made a dash on the besiegers as they were marking out a camp. But an overwhelming force having repelled the *sortie*, pressed in through the open gates, and remained masters of the city. Then began a terrific scene of blood. Arnold Amalric, the legate, was asked by some officers how they were to know the heretics from the true sons of Rome. Satan might be proud of his reply. "Kill all," said he; "God will know his own." Sixty thousand were slain, and the town was burned to ashes.

**7. Surrender of Raymond Roger.** — Carcassonne held out until the water began to fail. The garrison is said to have escaped by an under-ground passage of great length. Raymond Roger, surrendering, died in prison within three months; and his territories were bestowed on Simon de Montfort, Earl of Leicester, father of that Leicester who headed the revolt of the English barons against Henry III. Thenceforward Montfort was the great captain of the war.

**8. The Castle of Minerva: 1210 A.D.** — In the summer of 1210, Montfort laid siege to the Castle of Minerva, near Narbonne. Perched on a steep crag, it was looked on as the strongest place in the land. For seven weeks the Albigenes held out; but then their cisterns ran dry. Led to hope that their lives would be spared, they gave up the castle. But they soon found that, if they wished to live, they must accept the doctrines of Rome. A heap of dry wood which filled the courtyard was set on fire, and more than one hundred and forty men and women leaped willingly into the flames rather than deny their faith.

**9. Capture of La Vaur Castle: 1211 A.D.** — The whole of that land of deep-green valleys was then ravaged by Montfort and his pilgrims, as the persecuting soldiery were called. The Castle of La Vaur, fifteen miles from Toulouse, had long been a place of refuge for those Albigenes who were driven from their homes by the flames. By the Crusaders it was regarded as a nest of heresy which must be pulled down. Five thousand



SOUTHERN FRANCE—THE ALBIGENSES.

men of Toulouse, banded together as the White Company, advanced to the siege. Strange and terrible engines of war fronted the walls. One of them was the *cat*—a mediæval form of the old battering-ram. Within a great wooden tower, covered with sheepskin, there swung a heavy beam, studded with iron claws, which struck and tore at the masonry till a breach was made. At first Montfort could not reach the wall, for as fast as he filled up the ditch by day the garrison cleared away the earth by night. At length, however, having driven them from their subterranean passages with fire, he got the *cat* to work, and made a practicable breach. As the knights clambered up the ruined wall the priests chanted a hymn of joy. When the sword and the gallows had done their deadly work, the remainder of the captives were burned alive.

10. **Battle of Muret: 1213 A.D.**—Raymond, Count of Toulouse, at last plucked up heart to face the invaders. An alliance was formed between the Albigenses and Don Pedro, King of Aragon. At Muret, nine miles from Toulouse, a battle was fought, in which Don Pedro was slain, and the victory rested with Montfort. The iron-clad knights of Northern France were as yet more than a match for the light horse of Spain and the defenceless infantry of the Pyrenees. This crushing blow

struck terror into the hearts of the Albigenses. The war seemed to be over, and the Crusaders went home.

11. In 1215 we find Prince Louis, son of Philip Augustus,—afterwards St. Louis the Crusader,—taking the Cross against the heretics. The time allotted for the pilgrimage was six weeks, during which the chief pleasures were to be, living at discretion in Languedoc, pillaging houses and castles, and singing the hymn “Veni Creator” around the burning heretics. But for that time, at least, the pleasant programme was not carried out, for Montfort took care to get Louis as quickly and quietly as possible out of the land which he had conquered for himself.

12. **Death of Montfort: 1217 A.D.**—Toulouse and Narbonne were the two capitals of Montfort's rule. The citizens of the former revolted, inspired with new courage on the return of Count Raymond. In the attempt to retake the city, Simon de Montfort was killed by a blow on the head with a great stone.

13. **Languedoc annexed to France: 1242 A.D.**—Still the war continued, with the same terrible bloodshed under the same pretence of religious zeal. But the Albigenses grew weaker. Raymond VI. died in 1222, worn out with care and age. Seven years later, his son Raymond VII. yielded up all his territory to the King of France, receiving back a part to be held as a fief. This arrangement was called the Peace of Paris. Some vain struggles followed, for the spirit of the Albigenses was yet alive, though sorely crushed. The final ratification of the peace in 1242 completed the conquest of Languedoc.

14. This was not only a religious persecution; it had also a distinct political aim. Guizot well describes it as the re-establishment of the feudal system in the south of France, when an attempt had been made to organize society there on democratic principles. So completely was the nationality of the Albigenses trampled out, that their beautiful tongue—the *Langue d'oc*, the sweet *Provençal* of the troubadour ballads—disappeared for ever, as a distinct speech, from among the languages of Europe.

## NOTES.

§ 1. *Tiara*, the Pope's crown, consisting of a high cap of gold cloth encircled by three coronets.

**Albigenses.** They received the name Albigenses from the town of Albi. They belonged properly to the sect of the *Cathari*, or "the pure," extensively scattered over the whole of Europe during the eleventh, twelfth, and thirteenth centuries.

3. **Real presence**, the doctrine that the bread and wine in the Lord's supper are changed into Christ's body and blood. Called also "transubstantiation."

**Waldenses.** The Waldenses are said to have got their name from Peter Waldo of Lyons (1170). They settled in the valleys of Piedmont about 1375. In 1856 Oliver Cromwell procured for them some degree of toleration.

7. **Revolt of the English Barons.** In 1264 they defeated Henry at Lewes in Sussex, and took him prisoner. In the following year Leicester was killed in battle at Evesham.

11. **Veni Creator—*Veni Creator Spiritus*** ("Come, Creator, Spirit")—a hymn of the Roman Breviary, for the feast of Pentecost.

13. **Fief**, lands held by a vassal, under the feudal system, for which homage was paid and military service was rendered.

14. **Guizot, François**, French historian and politician; born 1787, died 1874. He was a leading statesman during the reign of Louis-Philippe (1830-1848).

**Feudal system**, the system of land-tenure by military service—all lands belonging, in the first instance, to the king, and being by him apportioned to his vassals, and by them to their sub-vassals and retainers.

**Democratic principles**, the system of government and legislation in which the power is in the hands of the people.

**Langue d'oc.** So called from the use of *oc* (yes) by the people; whereas the northerners said *out*, and their language was called the *Langue d'oïl*.

**SUMMARY.**—The Albigenses of Southern France formed themselves into a religious brotherhood: they got their name from Albi, a town in Languedoc.—1208. Philip of France began a crusade against them.—1209. The town of Béziers was taken by Amalric, the papal legate, and a great massacre followed. Raymond Roger, the Albigensian leader, surrendered at Carcassonne.—1210. The Castle of Minerva, near Narbonne, was taken; and many men and women gave up their lives rather than deny their faith.—1211. The Castle of La Vaur was taken; and many captives were burned alive.—1213. At Muret, Don Pedro, King of Aragon, the ally of the Albigenses, was defeated by Montfort.—1217. Montfort was killed in attempting to retake Toulouse, which had revolted.—1242. Languedoc was annexed to France by Raymond VII., and the Albigenses, along with their language, disappeared.

## THE CAPET KINGS OF FRANCE.

Hugh Capet.....	A.D. 987	Louis IX. (St. Louis).....	A.D. 1226
Robert II. (the Sage).....	996	Philip III. (the Hardy).....	1270
Henry I.....	1031	Philip IV. (the Fair).....	1285
Philip I.....	1060	Louis X. (Hutin).....	1314
Louis VI. (the Fat).....	1108	John.....	1316
Louis VII. (the Young).....	1137	Philip V. (the Long).....	1316
Philip II. (Augustus).....	1180	Charles IV. (the Handsome).....	1323
Louis VIII. (Cœur de Lion).....	1223		

## CHAPTER V.

*CONQUEST OF PRUSSIA BY THE TEUTONIC ORDER.*

**Central Point:** The Seat of the Order fixed at Marienburg—1309 A.D.

**English History:** Reign of Edward II.—1307–1327 A.D.

**Scottish History:** Reign of Robert the Bruce—1306–1329 A.D.

1. One of the most remarkable achievements of the days of chivalry was the conquest of Prussia by the few thousand knights of the Teutonic Order, which, it will be remembered, originated during the third Crusade.

2. **The Borussi.**—Among the marshes and pine forests, which bordered the Baltic on the south and the east, a fierce Slavonic tribe of Wends, called the Borussi, had maintained themselves for centuries. They wore furs and coarse linen; ate horse flesh and drank mare's milk. The sun, moon, and stars were their gods; and when a chief died, his wives, slaves, arms, and horses were burned with his corpse. Their warlike character resisted every attempt to plant Christianity among them. They were deadly and powerful foes of the Polish nation, and had been striving to subdue them for nearly four hundred years, but in vain.

3. **War with the Teutonic Knights: 1226–1283 A.D.**—After the close of the fifth Crusade, the Teutonic Knights, having returned to Venice where they had their home, accepted the invitation of a Polish duke to occupy Kulm on the Vistula, and turn their arms against these fierce barbarians. Fixing their head-quarters by the Vistula, first at Kulm, and then at Thorn, the knights commenced a war of fifty-seven years, which ended in the complete overthrow of the Borussi or Prussians.

4. **Removal to Marienburg: 1309 A.D.**—About thirty years after the conquest of the land, the grand master removed the seat of the Order from Venice to Marienburg, thus completing the settlement of these new lords on Prussian soil.

5. Some of the native Prussian chiefs were ennobled; but the mass of the people sank into serfdom. Feudal castles studded

the conquered land ; and to fill the place of the thousands who had perished in the terrible war, German colonists were drafted in. The German tongue began to be freely spoken, and a spirit of enterprise pervaded the land. The Prussians turned to their cattle-rearing with new zeal. Commerce flourished along the shores of the Baltic and on the banks of the Vistula. Thriving German farms smiled everywhere around. The Baltic supplied profitable stores of fish, and the amber gathered on the shore drew wealth into the coffers of the State.

**6. Territory of the Order.**—The territory of the Teutonic Order stretched along the Baltic from a point west of the Vistula to the southern shore of the Gulf of Finland with only a single break. Running inland as far as to Thorn, it included eastern and part of western Prussia, and a considerable part of modern Russia. The islands of Dago and Gotland were also within the limit. The chief cities were Marienburg, Königsberg, and Dantzic. In the first of these, which was the capital of the Order from 1309 till 1457, the ruins of their grand old Gothic palace still mark the greatness of a pride long since crumbled into dust.

**7.** The grand masters lived in magnificent state. One of them, gathering an army on the banks of the Niemen to invade Lithuania, entertained his knights at a grand banquet. Richly dressed servants held a canopy of cloth of gold over each knight as he sat at table ; and, when the thirty courses of the banquet had come and gone, the guests were permitted to carry away the golden plate and cup they had been using. Such luxury ere long sapped the prosperity of these soldier-monks. Vices, at first hidden within castle walls, began to be practised more openly. With blacker vice there grew up greater arrogance. They lashed the Prussian serfs and the German settlers with such merciless severity, that the trampled races rose in revolt, and called in the aid of the gallant Poles. On one fearful field—Tannenberg in Southern Prussia—the Grand Master Ulrich died with most of his knights, and thirty thousand meaner soldiers.

**8. End of the Order.**—This blow broke the power of the

Order. The seat of the grand master was transferred to Königsberg in 1457. A few years later, the knights, shorn of their old splendour, sank into nothingness as vassals of the Polish crown. The Order, however, was not finally dissolved till the beginning of the present century.

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**SUMMARY.**—1226-1283. The Borussi, a fierce Slavonic tribe inhabiting the east of the present kingdom of Prussia, were conquered by the Teutonic Knights.—1309. Marienburg was made the seat of the Order. The mass of the people became serfs; and colonists from Germany were brought into Prussia. The Knights became powerful and wealthy; but their severe treatment of the serfs and settlers aroused against them the indignation of the people. They rose in revolt, and, with aid from the Poles, destroyed the power of the Order at Tannenberg. The Order was finally dissolved at the beginning of the present century.

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## CHAPTER VI.

### *THE SWISS WAR OF INDEPENDENCE.*

**Central Points:** Battle of Morgarten—1315; Battle of Sempach—1386 A.D.

**English History:** Reigns of Edward II.—1307-1327; Edward III.—1327-1377; Richard II.—1377-1399 A.D.

**Scottish History:** Reigns of Robert I.—1306-1329; David II.—1329-1371; Robert II.—1371-1390 A.D.

1. **The Forest Cantons.**—Early in the Christian era Switzerland, which was peopled chiefly by Gallic tribes, formed a part of the Roman Empire, and was called Helvetia. After being overrun by Goths, Lombards, Vandals, and other barbarous races, it was included in the kingdom of Burgundy, and as such fell under the rule of Charles the Great. Afterwards, it was annexed to the Holy Roman Empire. Conspicuous among the many small sovereignties and states into which it was broken, were the Forest Cantons of Schwyz, Uri, Unterwalden, Zurich, and Zug, clustered around the shores of Lake Lucerne.

2. **Rudolf of Habsburg:** 1273-1291 A.D.—In 1273, Count Rudolf of Habsburg (Hawk's Castle on the Aar in North Switzerland) was elected King of the Romans, and Emperor of Germany. He is distinguished in history as the founder of the Imperial House of Austria. Lord of many lands and towns in Switzerland, he held besides, by the free choice of the foresters



themselves, the stewardship of the Forest States. He did not allow his elevation to the imperial throne to sever the ties which bound him to the mountain-land. He spent much time among the Swiss; and the many benefits and privileges they received from him were repaid on their part by affection and unbounded trust. Immediately after the death of Rudolf in 1291, the Forest Cantons bound themselves together by a perpetual league, which formed the basis of the Swiss Confederacy.

3. **Revolt of the Foresters: 1307 A.D.**—But when, in 1298, his son Albert, Duke of Austria—which had been taken by Rudolf from Bohemia—was made emperor, gloom fell on Switzerland. It soon became clear that his design was to make himself despotic master of all the land. The Forest Cantons were placed under Austrian bailiffs or governors, whose tyranny grew intolerable, and at last drove the foresters to revolt.

4. According to the traditional story (on which, however, modern research has thrown grave doubt) the patriots to the number of thirty-three met on a November night in the meadow of Rutli by Lake Lucerne, and swore beneath the starry sky to die, if need were, in defence of their freedom. Soon afterwards Gessler, the Austrian bailiff, was slain by one of the thirty-three, William Tell, famous over all the country for his skill with the cross-bow. The romantic story, fondly cherished by the Swiss, runs thus:—

5. **Story of William Tell.**—Gessler, to try the temper of the Swiss, set up the ducal hat of Austria on a pole, in the market-place of Altorf, and commanded that all who passed it by should bow in homage. Tell, passing one day with his little son, made no sign of reverence. He was at once dragged before Gessler, who doomed him to die, unless with a bolt from his cross-bow he could hit an apple placed on his son's head. The boy was bound, and the apple balanced. Tell, led a long way off, took aim for some breathless seconds, and pierced the little fruit through its centre. While shouts of joy were ringing from the crowd, Gessler saw that Tell had a second arrow, which he had somehow contrived to hide while choosing one for his trying shot. "Why," cried the bailiff, "hast thou that second arrow?"



revolted cantons refused to shelter the murderer, who died miserably in Italy. Albert was succeeded by his brother Henry of Luxemburg, who in 1309 recognized the Swiss Confederacy as a fief of the empire.

**8. Battle of Morgarten: 1315 A.D.**—Seven years after Albert's death, his son, Duke Leopold of Austria, resolved to pierce the mountains of Schwyz and subdue the brave mountaineers. He left Zug with an army of fifteen thousand men, and among the baggage there were great coils of rope with which to hang the prisoners. The Pass of Morgarten, which ran for three miles between steep rocks and a lake, was the only way by which cavalry could pass into the canton. In the dawn of a November morning, as the sun shone red through a frosty fog, the Austrians entered the pass—a host of steel-clad knights in front, and the footmen following in close order. Their advance was known and prepared for. Fourteen hundred herdsmen, who had commended their cause and themselves to God, lined the rocky heights. Fifty exiles from Schwyz, burning to gain an honoured place among their countrymen, gathered on a jutting crag that overhung the entrance of the defile, and when the Austrians were well in the trap, hurled down great rocks and trunks of trees on the close-packed ranks. Amid the confusion, which was increased by the fog, the Swiss rushed from the heights, and with their halberts and iron-shod clubs beat down the Austrian knights in crowds. Horses plunged into the lake; many knights fell back on the footmen, trampling them to death. It was a woful day for Austria, and for chivalry, when the steel cuirass and the knightly lance went down before the pikes and clubs of a few untrained footmen. Duke Leopold with difficulty saved himself by a headlong flight over the mountains.

**9. The Name, Switzerland.**—The valour of the Schwyzers was so conspicuous in this battle, and throughout the future struggle, that the name of their canton came to be applied to the whole country, thenceforth named Switzerland.

**10. The Eight ancient Cantons: 1353 A.D.**—Within a month of the victory, the Forest Cantons renewed their solemn league of mutual defence; and soon afterwards, the immediate depend-

ence of the cantons on the empire was formally recognized. Before 1351, Lucerne and Glarus had joined the league, and Berne followed in 1353, thus completing the list of the eight ancient cantons of the infant Republic. The ceaseless industry and steady economy of the mountaineers proved them worthy of the freedom they had so bravely won.

11. **Battle of Sempach: 1386 A.D.**—But their task was not yet done. In 1386, Leopold, Duke of Swabia, one of the Habsburg line, who had the lands of the west assigned to him, marched from Baden toward Lucerne, bent on crushing the Confederacy with a single blow. He found his way barred at Sempach by thirteen hundred men, who held the wooded heights around the lake. The Austrian force consisted of four thousand horse, and fourteen hundred foot. Urged by his proud knights, the duke ordered an immediate attack, without waiting for the rest of the army. As the broken mountain-ground was unfit for cavalry movements, the knights dismounted, and formed a solid mass of steel. The Swiss charged them gallantly, some with boards on their left arms instead of shields; but the iron wall stood fast, with its bristling fence unbroken. When sixty of the mountaineers lay bleeding on the earth, and when the wings of the Austrian line were curving round to close on them, Arnold von Winkelried (so the story runs) seized with his open arms as many of the Austrian lances as he could reach, and bore their points with him to the ground. Like lightning the Swiss sprang through the gap; the Austrian line was broken; all was rout and dismay. Two thousand knights perished on the field. Duke Leopold himself died while gallantly defending the torn and blood-stained banner of Austria.

12. **Battle of Näfels: 1388 A.D.**—This brilliant success was followed, two years later, by another at Näfels, in which six thousand Austrians were scattered by a handful of Swiss. Here, as at Morgarten, rocks flung from the heights caused the first disorder in the Austrian lines.

13. **The Sempach Convention: 1393 A.D.**—At the Diet of Zurich, held in 1393, a general law, called the Sempach Convention, was framed to bind the eight cantons together in

firmer league. It enacted that it was the duty of the Swiss people "to avoid unnecessary feuds, but when a war was unavoidable, to unite cordially and loyally together; not to flee in any battle before the contest should be decided, even if wounded, but to remain masters of the field; not to attempt pillage before the general had sanctioned it; and to spare churches, convents, and defenceless females."

14. Thus Switzerland shook off the yoke of Austria; and never since, but once, when for a time Napoleon laid his giant grasp upon her, has the liberty won at Morgarten and Sempach been imperilled.

**SUMMARY.**—After the time of Charles the Great, Switzerland formed part of the Holy Roman Empire.—1273. Rudolf of Habsburg, in Switzerland, was elected Emperor of Germany. He founded the Imperial House of Austria. Under him the Swiss enjoyed prosperity.—1307. Rudolf's son, Albert, subjected the Forest Cantons to the rule of Austrian bailiffs. The Swiss rose in revolt. Gesler, one of the bailiffs, was slain by William Tell.—1309. The Swiss Confederacy was recognized as a fief of the empire.—1315. In the Pass of Morgarten 1,400 herdsmen routed 15,000 Austrian soldiers. The Canton of Schwyz gave its name to the whole land.—1353. Eight cantons were included in the Confederacy.—1386. At Sempach the Swiss were again victorious, and Duke Leopold, the Austrian leader, was slain.—1388. A third success at the battle of Näfels enabled the Swiss to throw off the Austrian yoke.—1393. The Sempach Convention bound the eight cantons together in firmer league.

#### GERMAN EMPERORS OF THE HOUSES OF HABSBURG, LUXEMBURG, AND BAVARIA.

Rudolf (Count of Habsburg) A.D. 1273	Louis alone.....A.D. 1330
Interregnum.....1291	Charles IV. (of Luxemburg).....1347
Adolphus (Count of Nassau).....1292	Wenzel (King of Bohemia) ....1378
Albert (Duke of Austria).....1298	Rupert (Count Palatine of the { 1400
Henry VII. (of Luxemburg).....1308	Rhine) .....
Interregnum.....1313	Sigismund (King of Hungary)...1410
Louis IV. (of Bavaria).....	
Frederic III. (of Austria), } 1314	
reigning rivals .....	

## CHAPTER VII.

### CHIVALRY.

1. The life of the Middle Ages is deeply coloured with the hues of Chivalry. There the knight is the central figure—the

model of mediæval art, and the hero of mediæval literature—foremost in every court revel and greenwood sport, in the glittering tilt-yard and on the dusty battle-field.

2. **Origin of Chivalry.**—The origin of chivalry cannot be marked by any distinct date. While the Cæsars ruled in Rome, the germs of the system were alive amid the German forests. Of this Tacitus gives us a glimpse, when he writes, "that the noblest youths were not ashamed to be numbered among the faithful companions of a celebrated leader, to whom they devoted their arms and their service." Silently, but surely the system grew amid the wars that swept over Europe after the fall of the Western Empire. In the days of Charles the Great it received a powerful impulse. Then the horsemen got a separate summons to serve in the army. But chivalry reached its fullest growth during the two centuries of the Crusades.

3. The young aspirant to knighthood served in two subordinate grades before he received his spurs,—first as a page, and then as a squire.

4. **The Page.**—A boy destined for military life was sent at seven or eight years of age to the castle of some noble distinguished in war. There, called a page or varlet, he was at first set to attend the ladies of the mansion, to run their messages, or to accompany them when they rode out hunting or hawking. In return for these services, rendered with all humility and courtesy, he received instruction in the use of light weapons, in music, chess, and the chief doctrines of religion.

5. **The Squire.**—The page was made a squire at the age of thirteen or fourteen. His father and mother, bearing tapers in their hands, led him up to the altar, where the priest, with words of prayer and blessing, gave him a sword and belt. The introduction of religious sanction into the ceremonies of chivalry—which, however, did not take place till after the time of Charles the Great—gave the system its greatest strength. In one sense, indeed, chivalry may be called the religion of the Middle Ages; for its influence kept down to some extent the

growth of barbarous vices, and gave a gentler tone to social intercourse.

6. The page was the attendant of the ladies ; but the squire served the men. Every squire—for in a great household there were many—had his own special work to do. One, the body-squire, was the personal attendant of his lord ; another, the squire-trenchant, bore the napkins and the bread at meal-time, and carved the chief dishes. Chaucer thus describes his squire, who was son of the knight,—

“ Courteous he was, lowly and serviceable,  
And carved before his father at the table.”

A third squire looked after the horses ; while others took charge of the cellar and the pantry.

7. These duties, however, were secondary to the more important work which lay before the squire, when the practice of military sports had strengthened his muscles and quickened his eye. His great duty was to follow his lord to the battle or the tournament, leading the war-horse. On the high-peaked saddle was piled the armour of the knight, who, lightly dressed, rode before on a hack. When the hour of battle came, he arrayed his master in full armour, rivetting the plates with a skill which it had taken much time and pains to gain. During the fight he kept behind his lord, handed him a fresh lance, led in a horse if his lord was dismounted, dashed to the rescue if he saw him hard pressed, and often bore him bleeding to a place of safety. Such were a squire's duties until he reached the age of twenty-one.

8. **Creation of a Knight.**—The change from squirehood to knighthood was marked with much religious pomp. Christmas, Easter, and Whitsuntide were the chief seasons for the creation of new knights. Having fasted and confessed his sins, the candidate passed a night in prayer and watching. In the morning, he bathed, and was dressed in new robes,—an under-kirtle, a silk or linen vest embroidered with gold, a collar of leather, and over all the coat of mail. In the church, he handed his sword to the priest. A prayer was said ; a vow

to defend churches, widows, and orphans, and to fight for the faithful against all pagans, was taken ; and a part of the 44th Psalm was sung. The prince or noble, who was to confer the distinction, then put the usual questions as to the motives of the candidate in seeking to be made a knight. The final oath was administered, and the sword, now consecrated by the priest, was handed to the attendants. The baldric—a belt of white leather and gold—was fastened around the candidate's waist, and his golden spurs were buckled on. The noble then drew the sword and struck the kneeling squire lightly on the back of the neck with the flat part of it, and dubbed him knight in the name of the Trinity.

9. **Chain-Mail.**—The dress and equipment of the knight varied much at different periods. The Roman cavalry wore coats of mail, made of metal scales sewed on a leather garment ; the Goths, Alans, and other barbarous tribes, adopted the same kind of armour. In later times, when the troops of the West met the Moslem horsemen, this Roman mail was exchanged for the Saracen chain-armour, formed of interlinked rings of steel. The heroes of the first Crusade wore this chain-mail ; of which the great advantage was, that it allowed freer movement of the limbs. The head, too, was protected by a hood or cowl of chain-mail, over which was worn a low flat cap of steel.

10. **Plate-Armour.**—The horses were at first quite unprotected. But when at Dorylæum and other early battles of the Crusaders the Turkish arrows unhorsed the knights by thousands, and slew many of them in spite of their mailed tunics, it became the custom to sheathe the horses in complete armour. During the fourteenth century, the chain-mail of the early knights was exchanged for armour formed of overlapping metal plates, which was found more serviceable in resisting pointed missiles.

11. **Picture of a Knight.**—The knight, as he appears in the golden age of chivalry, glittering in his costly armour of steel inlaid with gold, with plume and crest and visored helmet, his lance and mace, axe and sword and dagger all ready for the fray, presents a splendid and romantic figure. But this splendid





KNIGHTS IN CHAIN ARMOUR.

warrior soon became of little use in the field. When heavier armour was used, so as to increase the force of a charge, both knight and horse were locked up in a little fortress of steel. When a knight fell, the weight of his armour often prevented him from rising again; and it was no uncommon thing for knights to be so lamed in their shoulders with wearing such armour, as to be unfitted for active service at the early age of thirty-five.

**12. The Tournament.**—The tournament has been well called the link which united the peaceful to the warlike life of the knight. Tournaments, as the name indicates, were first held in France. England and Germany soon followed the example of their neighbours. The lists, in which the encounters took place, were an oval arena enclosed with stakes and ropes. At

each end there were stalls for the noble spectators; while at one side there was a gallery occupied by the queen of the tournament and her attendant ladies. The tilting was generally with lances, on the points of which were fixed pieces of wood, called rockets; and the great object with each knight was to unhorse his antagonist. At a signal from the heralds, the knights dashed from opposite ends of the lists, and met with a terrific shock in the centre. This rough sport often ended fatally, as when Henry II. of France got his death-wound at a joust with one of his knights. Accidents like this brought the tournament into disrepute, and soon the clergy began to set their faces against it.

**13. Three Elements in Chivalry.**—Chivalry in its fullest development was a compound of three distinct elements. It was at first a purely military institution, growing out of the warlike character of the Teutonic tribes. Secondly, a religious element was introduced about the eleventh century, when the clergy began to feel the importance of gaining a hold upon a body so great and powerful as the military order. Thirdly, the spirit of gallantry was fostered by its vows. This influence, though tinged with licentiousness, helped to raise woman from the low place she holds in barbarous society, to her true position as the equal of man.

**14. Decay of Chivalry.**—The decay of chivalry came in the natural course of events, when the system had done its destined work. It was found that the ponderous knight was useless when he lay unhorsed on the ground. The English archers, too, formed a force against which heavy-armed cavalry was of little avail. At Crécy and Poitiers the cloth-yard shafts won the day. Toward the close of the Middle Ages, infantry once more began to be reckoned of some value in the field. In that movement the Swiss took the lead, inspired by the victory of their foot-soldiers over the chivalry of Austria.

**15. Change made by Gunpowder.**—It was gunpowder, however, that really gave chivalry its death-blow. Armour of proof might withstand the English shaft, or turn the edge of the Swiss broadsword; but it could not resist the bullet, or the

cannon-ball! The art of war was wholly changed by the invention of gunpowder. Thereafter, battles were fought chiefly at a distance, no longer hand to hand; science began to take the place of sheer strength. At first pikemen were scattered among the musketeers to repel cavalry; but the invention of the bayonet made the musketeer a pikeman too. Since that time infantry have formed the main strength of armies.

16. **Chivalry and Romances.**—We find a brilliant reflection of chivalry in the romantic literature which grew up about the time of the Crusades. The romance pictures the knight in his glory, splendid but clumsy; suave and courteous in the extreme, but very often cruel. The enchanted castle with its beautiful and distressed captives, the monster dragons and other terrors to be overcome by the unconquered arm of the hero, were the allegorical images of evils, highly magnified and coloured by the untaught poets who sang of them. Indeed, the knight-errant is a very doubtful character, whose picture, if ever he existed, must have been drawn from those chevaliers who travelled from tournament to tournament, claiming and receiving hospitality everywhere as citizens of the world. The romance, owing its birth to chivalry, repaid the benefit by prolonging the life of chivalry for many years. The deeds of Arthur and Charles the Great formed the subjects of some of the earliest romances. The *trouvères* of Normandy, the *troubadours* of Provence, and the *minnesingers* of Swabia, kept up the strain. We find it, its wild ruggedness toned down, flowing in the melodious verse of Ariosto and Tasso, and in the less musical but not less picturesque tales of Chaucer. In modern literature, the romance of chivalry has its best representatives in the novels and poems of Scott and in Tennyson's "Idylls of the King."

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#### NOTES.

§ 1. **Chivalry**, literally horsemanship; from French *cheval*, a horse. *Cavalry* is from the same root.

16. **Romance**, originally a story written in one of the Romance dialects, which were corruptions of the old Roman tongue. As these tales were fictitious and wonderful, the name came to be applied to any story which passes beyond the limits of real life.

**Arthur**, King of the Silures, in South Wales; lived in the sixth century; but much of his history is legendary. The legends show their origin among the Celts of Brittany.

**Arios'to**, see page 262; **Tasso**, see page 263; **Chaucer**, see page 160.

**SUMMARY.**—Chivalry reached its fullest growth during the time of the Crusades. An aspirant to knighthood served first of all as a page, and then as a squire. The page was the attendant of the ladies, but the squire served the men, and attended on his lord in battle. The creation of a knight was accompanied with an elaborate religious ceremony. Chain-mail was worn in battle, and horses as well as knights were afterwards sheathed in metal. Plate-armour came to be used instead of the chain-mail. The tournament was a favourite sport, but the fatal accidents which often occurred brought it into disrepute. Besides the military and religious elements, chivalry possessed a spirit of gallantry which helped to raise woman to her true position. The invention of gunpowder brought about the fall of chivalry. Brilliant pictures of knightly adventure are given in the romances of chivalry.

## GREAT NAMES OF THE FOURTH PERIOD.

**ANSELM.**—Born at Aosta, Northern Italy, 1033—churchman and philosopher—Abbot of Bec in Normandy—Archbishop of Canterbury, 1093—the champion of the Church against William II. and Henry I.—his theological writings had a wide-spread influence in his own time—died 1109.

**ABELARD.**—Born in Brittany, 1079—a famous teacher of logic and divinity—5,000 students attended his lectures at once—charged by St. Bernard with heresy—author of many theological works—died near Chalons, 1142.

**BACON (ROGER).**—Born in Somersetshire about 1214—an early scientific discoverer—a Franciscan friar at Oxford—said to have been the most learned man of the Middle Ages—his teaching denounced by his fellow-clergy and by the Pope—wrote many works in Latin—chief of them "Opus Majus"—died 1292.

**THOMAS AQUINAS.**—Born at Aquino, near Naples, 1227—famous theologian—chief work, "Summa Theologiæ"—wrote also Latin hymns—the great opponent of Duns Scotus—his followers, called Thomists, upheld the supreme efficacy of divine grace—died 1274.

**CIMABUE.**—Born at Florence, 1240—the father of modern painting—restored the study from living models—worked in fresco and distemper, for oil-painting was not yet in use—died 1308.

**JOHN DUNS SCOTUS.**—Born about 1265—famed as a theologian—a Franciscan monk—called the "Subtle Doctor"—had great controversies with Aquinas about free-will and divine grace—his followers called Scotists—died 1308.

**DANTE.**—Born at Florence, 1265—one of the Alighieri family—much engaged in political feuds—the greatest of Italian poets—chief work, "Divina Commedia," a vision of the invisible world—died at Ravenna, 1321.

**GIOTTO.**—Born in Tuscany, 1276—a great painter and architect—a shepherd in early years—a pupil of Cimabue—the intimate friend of Dante, whose portrait he painted—designed the famous "Campanile" of Florence—chief pictures, "Coronation of the Virgin," "The Last Supper," and "La Navicella," a mosaic, representing Peter walking on the water—died at Florence, 1336.

**PETRARCH (FRANCESCO).**—Born at Arezzo, 1304—a great Italian poet—lived much at the papal court in Avignon—deeply attached to a lady called Laura, whose praises are sung in his soft melodious "Sonnets"—he wrote, besides, Latin verse and prose—died 1374.

**BOCCACCIO (GIOVANNI).**—Born at Florence, 1313—author of the earliest chivalrous poem in Italian, "La Teseide"—but more remarkable as the father of Italian prose—chief work the "Decamerone," consisting of one hundred tales—died 1375.

**WYCLIF (JOHN).**—Born in Yorkshire, 1324—professor of divinity in Oxford University—the first English Reformer—the father of English prose—famous as the translator of the Bible into English—died 1384.

**FROISSART.**—Born at Valenciennes, 1337—son of a herald-painter—for some time secretary of Queen Philippa of England—noted as a historian and poet—chief work his "Chronicles," a brilliant picture of war and chivalry in Western Europe from 1326 to 1400.

**CHAUCER (GEOFFREY).**—Born in London, about 1340—the first great English poet—lived at the courts of Edward III. and Richard II.—chief work, the "Canterbury Tales"—died 1400.

## CHRONOLOGY OF THE FOURTH PERIOD.

### ELEVENTH CENTURY—*continued.*

Council of Clermont .....	A.D. 1095
First Crusade begins .....	1096
Jerusalem taken by the Crusaders .....	1099

### TWELFTH CENTURY.

Wiscard of Normandy king of Naples .....	1102
Knights Hospitallers instituted .....	1113
Knights Templars instituted .....	1118
Justinian's Pandects discovered at Amalfi .....	1137
Second Crusade .....	1147
Frederic Barbarossa emperor of the West .....	1152
Accession of Plantagenets in England .....	1154
Invasion of Ireland under Henry II. of England .....	1172
Battle of Legnano .....	1176
Jerusalem taken by Saladin .....	1187
Third Crusade .....	1189
Teutonic Knights instituted .....	1191
Fourth Crusade .....	1194

### THIRTEENTH CENTURY.

Fifth Crusade .....	1202
Constantinople taken by the Crusaders .....	1203
War against Albigenes in Languedoc .....	1208
Children's Crusade .....	1212
Magna Carta signed by John of England .....	1215
Sixth Crusade .....	1227
Jenghis Khan overruns the Saracen empire .....	1227
Seventh Crusade .....	1248
End of the Abbaside caliphs .....	1258
The Greeks retake Constantinople .....	1261
Eighth Crusade: Death of St. Louis .....	1270
Rudolf of Habsburg elected emperor of Germany .....	1273
Conquest of Prussia by the Teutonic Order .....	1283
Conquest of Wales by Edward I. of England .....	1283
Acre taken by the Turks: End of the Crusades .....	1291

## FOURTEENTH CENTURY.

Swiss Revolution begins.....	A.D. 1307
Seat of the Papedom removed to Avignon.....	1309
Battle of Bannockburn.....	1314
Battle of Morgarten.....	1315
Battle of Crécy.....	1346
Rienzi tribune of Rome.....	1347
Union of the eight Swiss cantons.....	1353
Charles IV. of Germany institutes the Golden Bull—the fundamental law of the empire.....	1356
Hanseatic League finally embodied by act signed at Cologne.....	1364
Return of the Popes to Rome.....	1376
Battle of Sempach.....	1386

## Fifth Period.

Chiefly from the Establishment of Swiss  
Independence to the Reformation.

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### CHAPTER I.

#### *THE ITALIAN REPUBLICS: VENICE.*

**Central Point: Feud of Guelfs and Ghibelins—1138 A.D.**

**English History: Reigns of William I, William II, Henry I, and Stephen—1066–1154 A.D.**

**Scottish History: Reigns of Malcolm III. and his sons and Malcolm IV.—1057–1153 A.D.**

1. **Rise of the Republics.**—In the ninth century, the ravages of Hungarians and Saracens compelled the inhabitants of Italian towns to build strong walls around their homes and their market-places. The sturdy burghers, feeling their own strength, refused any longer to submit to the dominion of the nobles, who were accordingly forced to retire to their castles in the country. Thus arose the famous Italian Republics, whose story fills the brightest page in the history of modern Italy. About the same time, and from causes somewhat similar, arose the communes of France, and the great free cities of the Low Countries and Germany.

2. **Henry IV. and Pope Gregory: 1077 A.D.**—A Tuscan monk, Hildebrand, who had long been Archdeacon of Rome, became Pope in 1073, with the title of Gregory VII. His aim was to subdue the whole world to the power of the priesthood. He therefore enacted that all rulers, including the emperor himself, who should dare to invest any one with an ecclesias-

tical office, should be excommunicated. The emperor, Henry IV. of Germany, tenacious of rights long held by his fathers, appointed an Archbishop of Cologne, in defiance of this edict. Gregory summoned him to Rome to take his trial for such conduct. Henry wrote with his own hand a letter to the Pope, announcing that he, Gregory, had been deposed by the Synod of Worms. But it was an unequal contest. The terrible thunders of excommunication fell on the devoted emperor, and drove his faithless or terror-stricken chiefs from his side. In mid-winter he crossed the snowy Alps to make his peace with the offended pontiff. Gregory kept him in the court-yard of the castle of Canossa, barefooted and clad in a hair shirt, for three days, before he would grant him an audience. Yet even this humiliation was forgotten, and the War of Investitures, as it was called, was renewed. It continued to convulse Italy until 1122, when it was closed by the Concordat of Worms, which completely separated investiture with the sceptre of the emperors from election and consecration.

**3. Guelfs and Ghibelins in Germany: 1138 A.D.**—The owner of Canossa, when Henry IV. did penance there, was Matilda, Countess of Tuscany, who was one of the warmest friends the Papacy ever had. At her death she bequeathed to the Church Spoleto and Ancona. The legality of this gift being questioned, a new quarrel sprang up between the emperors and the popes, which widened into the great feud between Ghibelins and Guelfs. That feud was in the first instance purely a German quarrel. It originated in the rivalry for the imperial crown of two ducal families—the Welfs of Bavaria and the Hohenstaufens of Swabia. In 1138, Conrad III., a Hohenstaufen, became emperor, in spite of the opposition of the Saxons and the Bavarians. In one of the party fights that followed, the battle-cries used were *Welf!* and *Waiblingen!*—afterwards Italianized into Guelf and Ghibelin—the latter being the name of a castle in Swabia. At this stage, therefore, the opposition of Ghibelin and Guelf meant little more than Swabian against Bavarian.

**4. Guelfs and Ghibelins in Italy: 1154 A.D.**—In the



reign of Frederic Barbarossa, the second Hohenstaufen, the feud was transferred to Italy, where the people were striving to break the links that still bound them to the German Empire. Frederic, on the other hand, made it his chief aim to strengthen these bonds and to confirm the imperial authority. This brought him into contact with the cities of Northern Italy, in several of which independent governments had been set up. Thus, in Italy, Ghibelin against Guelf meant emperor against republic—feudalism against freedom. But both in the German and in the Italian feuds the Popes opposed the Ghibelins. In Germany, the Ghibelins were the heirs of the policy of Henry IV., while the Guelfs recognized the papal supremacy. In Italy, the Popes thought to serve their own purposes by supporting the Italian people against their common foe. Hence, in its widest and most important sense, Ghibelin against Guelf meant emperor against pope.

5. **Battle of Legnano: 1176 A.D.**—Milan was the first of the Italian cities to take up arms; but after a valiant resistance it fell in 1162, and all its fine old buildings were mingled with the dust. Frederic then placed over the Italian towns military governors, called *Podestas*, whose oppression kept alive the fire of revolt, which was carefully fanned, too, by the exiles from Milan. In 1167 the League of Lombardy was formed, when twenty-three Italian cities united to claim, among other privileges, the right of electing their own magistrates and of making their own laws. By granting charters, and working on local jealousies, Frederic contrived to create a rival league. For nine years war wasted Northern Italy, until the decisive battle of Legnano was fought on the road from Milan to Lago Maggiore. There, at one time of the day, the huge flag-staff of Milan was all but captured by a fierce rush of the German horse. But when the Company of Death—nine hundred young Milanese—rescued the sacred banner by a gallant charge, the fortune of the day was changed, and Redbeard narrowly escaped with his life. Seven years later, by the Peace of Constance, the emperor acknowledged the right of the republics to govern themselves, to levy their own troops, and to wall their own towns.

**6. Decline of all but a few Republics.**—Bitter jealousy of one another blazing often into war, and within the walls unceasing discord between the nobles and the people, sapped the prosperity of the Italian republics. One by one they fell, petty sovereignties rising on their ruins. And it would seem as if, when these scattered points of light went out one by one, the brilliance was not dimmed, but was concentrated with intenser lustre in a few great survivors. Venice and Florence were stars of the first magnitude. Pisa and Genoa still burned bright, though with an inferior splendour.

#### VENICE.

**Central Point: Appointment of the Council of Ten—1325 A.D.**

**English History: Reign of Edward II.—1307–1327 A.D.**

**Scottish History: Reign of Robert I.—1306–1329 A.D.**

**7. Origin of Venice: 452 A.D.**—The founders of Venice were refugees of Northern Italy, who fled from the sword of Attila in 452, and sought refuge in the clustered islets near the head of the Adriatic. There, governed by tribunes, they and their descendants fished, made salt, and carried on a constantly widening commerce for several centuries. Through all the changes of early Italian history these islanders maintained independence amid their lagoons, defying even the power of Charles the Great. While at war with his son Pipin, they built the capital of their republic on the island of Rivo Alto, or Rialto (809); and thither, some years later, they carried from Alexandria the body of their patron, Saint Mark, whose cathedral is still the crowning beauty of Venice.

**8. Her Prosperity.**—The glory of Venice began with the Crusades. Her position, favourable for commerce, had already led to ship-building on a large scale; and the hire of vessels to carry the Crusaders to Palestine filled her coffers with gold. Her ships brought back from Syria the silks and jewels and spices of the East. So this city of the waters, like Tyre of old, grew rich and strong, and her merchants became princes. In course of time she became the greatest commercial city in Europe. With her commerce her manufactures, too, throve—

the silks and the glass made at Venice being especially prized. Among the splendid pageants of her days of pride, the most striking was the "wedding of the Adriatic." Every year, on Ascension Day, the Doge, or Duke of Venice, accompanied by a countless fleet of black gondolas, sailed out in the great *Bucentaur* and flung a ring into the blue waters of the sea.

9. **Her Territory.**—The Venetian territory spread at an early date around the northern shore of the gulf. During the fourth Crusade, she gained the Ionian Islands, the Morea, and Candia; and later she extended her sway inland through Lombardy. Cyprus was conquered by her in 1498.

10. **Her Government: the Ten: the Three.**—In 1172, the appointment of the Doge and other magistrates was vested in the grand council of four hundred and eighty members. Change after change took place, until a Council of Ten secured the government to themselves (1325). Under this unchecked oligarchy a reign of terror began. The Ten were terrible; but still more terrible were the three inquisitors—two black, one red—appointed in 1454. Deep mystery hung over the Three. They were elected by the Ten; none else knew their names. Their great work was to kill; and no man—doge, councillor, or inquisitor—was beyond their reach. Secretly they pronounced a doom; and ere long the stiletto or the poison cup had done its work, or the dark waters of the lagoon had closed over a life. The spy was everywhere. No man dared to speak out, for his most intimate companions might be on the watch to betray him. Bronze vases, shaped like a "lion's mouth," were placed in the palace wall, to receive the names of suspected persons. The palace and the prison were connected by the "Bridge of Sighs,"—to cross which was to pass to one's doom.

11. **Marino Faliero.**—Forty-ninth Doge of Venice was old Marino Faliero, elected in September 1354. A lord, who had a grudge against the Doge, stole into the banquet-hall one night after the guests were gone, and wrote on the wooden throne some words insulting to his young and lovely wife. Next day the writing was seen; and the culprit was soon dis-

covered. But the light punishment inflicted on him by the council so enraged the Doge, that he joined in a plot to murder the chief nobles and make himself lord of Venice. The conspiracy was discovered, and the Doge was beheaded on the Giant's Staircase in April 1355.

12. **Francesco Foscari.**—Another noted Doge was Francesco Foscari, a man of much military genius, who ruled from 1423 to 1457. Inspired by his warlike ardour, the Venetians conquered a part of Lombardy. But the nobles grew jealous of his popularity. His son Jacopo, charged on suspicion with receiving bribes from the Duke of Milan, was terribly tortured three times, and driven into exile, where he died; and the old man, deposed after a government of thirty-four years, died while the great bell of St. Mark's was pealing out its welcome to his successor.

13. **Decline of Venice.**—Thereafter the aristocracy had no rivals in Venice. But the power of the State was decaying. The League of Cambray was formed against the island city in 1508 by the Pope, the Emperor, and the Kings of France and Spain, each of whom hoped for a share of her territories. Venice suffered severely in the war that followed; but she was saved from utter ruin by the quarrelling of the spoilers among themselves. In 1510 the Pope made with Ferdinand of Spain and the Two Sicilies the Holy League, which had for its object to drive the French out of Italy. In this they were successful, and Venice was saved for the time. But in the course of a few years she met with more terrible foes in the Turks, who stripped her of Cyprus and Candia (1573).

#### NOTES.

§ 1. **Communes**, the lowest administrative division of France; equivalent to the English parish or township. It was proposed by some that every commune should be an independent state, and that France should be a federation of such states.

2. This humiliation was forgotten. Having set up a rival Pope in the person of Clement III., Henry entered Rome and besieged Gregory in the Castle of St. Angelo. Gregory was rescued by Wiscard, and retired to Salerno, where he died in 1085.

3. **Hohenstaufen.** See Table of Emperors, p. 108.

8. **Wedding of the Adriatic.** Venice is said to have acquired the sovereignty of the Adriatic from Pope Alexander III. in 1170, who confirmed the concession by the gift of a ring of gold. It was then that the ceremony of the mystical marriage was introduced. Previously the Doge had visited the Adriatic in state and performed certain rites, according to the fashion of the age.

**Gondolas.** The gondola is a light flat-bottomed boat, used as a public conveyance through the water-streets of Venice. Lord Byron describes it as "a coffin clapt in a canoe;" and another traveller, as "a Thames wherry with the upper part of a mourning coach stuck amidships."

13. **The Two Sicilies**, the name given to the united kingdom of Naples and Sicily.

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**SUMMARY.**—The necessity for defence against the Hungarians and the Saracens gave rise to the Italian Republics.—1077. A dispute arose between the Emperor Henry IV. and Pope Gregory VII. Henry was excommunicated. He did penance for three days in the court-yard of Canossa Castle, and was pardoned.—1138. The Guelf and Ghibelin feud arose. It was first of all merely a rivalry between two ducal houses, but it afterwards grew into a conflict between the Pope's party and the Emperor's party.—1176. At the battle of Legnano, Frederic Barbarossa was defeated by the Milanese.—1452. The state of Venice was founded by a few refugees.—809. They established their capital on the island of Rivo Alto (Rialto). Venice became rich from her connection with the Crusades. The government at a later time was in the hands of "The Ten," and "The Three."—1508. The League of Cambray was formed against the state.—1573. The Turks stripped Venice of Cyprus and Candia.

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## CHAPTER II.

### *THE ITALIAN REPUBLICS: FLORENCE, ROME.*

#### FLORENCE.

**Central Point:** Lorenzo de Medici, Master of Florence—1478 A.D.

**English History:** Reign of Edward IV.—1461-1483 A.D.

**Scottish History:** Reign of James III.—1460-1488 A.D.

1. **Origin of Florence.**—Florence was originally a colony of Roman soldiers. Lying under the dominion of the Countess Matilda, in the opening of the twelfth century, it naturally became strongly attached to the Popedom; and, when all the civic republics of Tuscany took the one side or the other in the great struggle—Pope *versus* Emperor—we find Florence at the head of the Guelfic League, organized by Pope Innocent III., while Pisa headed the Ghibelin cities.

2. **Its Prosperity.**—The strength of the State lay in the commercial spirit of the citizens. They wove in silk and wool, made jewelry, and especially followed the occupation of bankers. They transacted business with kings. Their gold florin, coined in 1252, became the standard currency of Europe. The neighbouring nobles sought to be admitted as citizens; but by the city law they were obliged to enrol them-

selves on the register of some trade. Thus we find the name of the poet Dante, who was of noble family, gracing the roll of the Florentine apothecaries.

3. In 1250 the citizens revolted against the rule of the Ghibelin nobles, and established a magistracy which was styled the *Signoria*. One of the first acts of the newly-formed power was to recall the Guelf exiles to Florence. It is needless to describe the conspiracies and quarrels which followed. In the end the Guelfs triumphed; but in spite of feuds, Florence grew great and rich, and became one of the leading cities of Europe.

4. **The Medici.**—The prosperity of Florence is associated with the great family of the Medici. The founders of the family were Giovanni de Medici and his son Cosmo, both of them wealthy bankers. Cosmo took a lead in Florentine politics. His opponents gaining the upper-hand, he was imprisoned and exiled. But he was recalled within a year. Although he held no distinct title as governor of the State, he yet continued to guide all political movements by his influence over the committee of citizens, to which all sovereignty was intrusted. When he died in 1464, the grateful epitaph, "Father of his country," was graven on his tomb.

5. **Lorenzo the Magnificent: 1478 A.D.**—Lorenzo, the grandson of Cosmo, was born in 1448. His crippled and delicate father, Pietro, had left the government in the hands of five friends; but Lorenzo and his brother Giuliano, when they came of age, took the reins themselves. Their rivals were furious, and organized an attack on the brothers in the cathedral. Giuliano was slain; but Lorenzo, parrying the blow, escaped into the vestry. The friends of the Medici then fell on the conspirators. The archbishop and three others, rich merchants, were hanged out of the palace windows.

6. So Lorenzo became chief of Florence, fulfilling the design of his grandfather, whose aim had been to subject the State to the Medici. The Pope, Sixtus IV., enraged at the death of the archbishop, excommunicated Lorenzo, and, with the aid of the King of Naples, made war against him. After two campaigns

Lorenzo went to Naples and made a treaty with the king, which led to a peace with the Pope.

7. His splendid patronage of art and literature gained for Lorenzo the name of the "Magnificent." He himself was no mean poet. He enriched his library with many hundreds of rare manuscripts collected in Italy and the East. He turned his gardens at Florence into an academy, to which students flocked to study the antique from the exquisite sculptures gathered there. By supporting young artists, and offering prizes for works of merit, he gave an impulse to art which made Florence the scene of some of the most brilliant triumphs ever won by brush or chisel.

8. **Savonarola: 1489-1498 A.D.**—In 1489 Savonarola, a Dominican monk, travelled on foot to Florence, and used his extraordinary eloquence to demand a free government, and to lash the abuses of the Romish Church. Three years later, Lorenzo, dying of gout and fever, sent to seek absolution from the brave monk; but Savonarola would not grant it unless the dying prince would promise to restore liberty to his country. Lorenzo, unwilling to do this, died unabsolved. He was then forty-four. For preaching democracy and reform of the Church, and for defying the authority of the Pope, Savonarola was excommunicated, but could not be silenced. At length he and a few of his devoted followers were seized in the Convent of St. Mark, of which he had been prior for several years. After being hanged, their bodies were burned at Florence (1498).

9. **End of the Republic: 1537 A.D.**—When Charles VIII of France crossed the Alps and invaded Italy (1494), the fair city of Florence was rudely spoiled. The magnificent library was destroyed; statues, vases, cameos were wantonly defaced, or carried off and lost. The Medici, then banished from Florence, were restored in 1512. In the following year Giovanni, second son of Lorenzo the Magnificent, became Pope under the title of Leo X. The extinction of the republic dates from 1537, when Cosmo I., one of a collateral branch of the Medici, was proclaimed Duke of Florence. In 1569 he was created by the Pope, Grand Duke of Tuscany.

## ROME.

**Central Point: Rienzi, Tribune of Rome—1347 A.D.**

**English History: Reign of Edward III.—1327–1377 A.D.**

**Scottish History: Reign of David II.—1329–1371 A.D.**

10. **Crescentius: 998 A.D.**—The names of Crescentius and Arnold of Brescia are prominent in the story of mediæval Rome. The consul Crescentius, a man of patrician rank, made a vain effort, at the close of the tenth century, to throw off the yoke of the Germans and to revive the old republic. He seized the Castle of St. Angelo, and occupied it with his followers. The emperor, Otto III., stormed the castle, and hanged the daring patriot.

11. **Arnold of Brescia: 1155 A.D.**—About a century and a half later, in the reign of Frederic Barbarossa, a monk named Arnold of Brescia was burned alive, by order of the Pope, at the gate of St. Angelo, for preaching against abuses in Church and State. "Roman Republic," "Roman Senate," "Comitia of the People," were strange and dangerous words to be heard in Roman streets; and therefore the bold tongue that spoke them withered in the flames.

12. **The Popes at Avignon: 1309–1376 A.D.**—But most remarkable was the revolution of which Cola di Rienzi was the central figure. It took place during the sixty-seven years (1309–1376) spent by the Popes at Avignon. The Popes wished to be supreme over all temporal monarchs, and they quarrelled with Philip the Fair of France because he refused to submit to them. At last Philip secured the election of a Frenchman as Pope—Clement V.,—who removed the papal court to Avignon, on the Rhone, and was thus completely under the influence of his master. As this exile of the Popes from Rome lasted nearly seventy years, it is called the "Babylonish Captivity."

13. **Rienzi.**—Rienzi, the son of an innkeeper and a washer-woman, was in early youth deeply read in Latin literature, and his enthusiasm for the classics was such that it gained for him the friendship of the poet Petrarch. He was very poor—was, indeed, reduced to a single coat, when he received a public



appointment, which rescued him from poverty. The feuds of the noble families, Colonna, Orsini, and others, then filled the streets with daily riot and bloodshed. Rienzi, whose fiery eloquence made him a man of mark in Rome, might often be seen in the centre of an eager crowd, interpreting the words of some old tablet, and dwelling fondly on the glories of the old republic. Encouraged by the flashes of patriotic fire that burst from the enslaved people, he formed the design of seizing the helm of the State.

14. When the time was ripe, one hundred citizens met by night on Mount Aventine. Next day a solemn procession bearing three great banners passed from St. Angelo to the Capitol. Rienzi was there, bareheaded, but clad otherwise in full armour; and on his right hand marched the papal vicar, the Bishop of Orvieto. The deep tolling of the great bell drove the nobles in alarm from Rome.

15. **Rienzi, Tribune of Rome: 1347 A.D.**—Rienzi was then elected tribune, and he ruled Rome for seven months. At first all went well. He was beloved at home and honoured abroad. His grand design was to unite all Italy in one great republic. Throughout the Roman territory, robbers found their occupation gone; the inns were full; the buzz of commerce sounded in the markets, and the ploughman's whistle was heard in the fields. But Rienzi's vanity spoiled all. Forgetting the simple grandeur of the old tribunes, he dressed in silk and gold. Silver trumpets sounded his approach, as he rode on a white steed amid his fifty guardsmen. The nobles, secretly gathering strength, rose in arms against him. Possessing no military genius, he speedily lost the confidence of the people. Then a papal bull was issued against him; and when a small band of his enemies seized Rome, the alarm bell tolled in vain—none of the citizens answered the summons. The degraded tribune hid his head within the Castle of St. Angelo, whence he soon escaped to lead a miserable life, wandering through Italy, Germany, and Bohemia. In 1352 the emperor gave him up to the Pope, and for some time he dwelt in custody at Avignon.

16. **Death of Rienzi: 1354 A.D.**—Two years later he was

sent to Rome by Pope Innocent VI. with the title of Senator. A burst of enthusiastic welcome greeted him. But within the short space of four months, his palace was stormed and burned by a furious mob, and he was stabbed to death beside the Lion of porphyry which guards the base of the Capitol stairs.

## NOTES.

§ 8. Dominican monk. The Dominicans were an order of friars (called also Black Friars) instituted by St. Dominic, a Spaniard, in 1215.

12. Babylonish captivity. This alludes to the captivity of the Israelites in 588 B.C., when Nebuchadnezzar took King Zedekiah with most of the people and carried them to Babylon. The period of seventy years is reckoned from 606 B.C., when Daniel and his friends were carried off, to 536 B.C., when Cyrus issued his decree permitting the Jews to return to their own country.

**SUMMARY.**—Originally a Roman colony, Florence rose into great commercial importance during the Middle Ages.—1478. It was ruled by Lorenzo the Magnificent, one of the Medici family; he was a patron of art and literature.—1489–1498. Savonarola, a Dominican monk, preached democracy and reform of the Church; for this he was hanged and burned at Florence.—1537. The republic was extinguished when Cosmo I., one of the Medici, was made Grand Duke of Tuscany.—998. Crescentius made a vain effort to revive the old republic of Rome.—1155. Arnold of Brescia was burned at Rome for preaching against abuses in Church and State.—1309–1376. The seat of the Papedom was removed to Avignon.—1347. Rienzi was elected tribune of Rome; seven months afterwards, he was degraded from the position.—1354. He was restored under the title of Senator.—Oct. 8. He was stabbed to death while his palace was being burned by a mob.

## POPES OF THE FOURTEENTH AND FIFTEENTH CENTURIES.

Boniface VIII.....A.D. 1294–1303		Innocent VII.....A.D. 1404
Benedict XI.....1303		Gregory XII.....1406
Vacancy, 11 months.....1304		Alexander V.....1409
AT AVIGNON.	Clement V.....1305	John XXIII.....1410
	Vacancy, 2 yrs. 4 mos.....1314	Martin V.....1417
	John XXII.....1316	Eugenius IV.....1431
	Benedict XII.....1334	Nicolas V.....1447
	Clement VI.....1342	Calixtus III.....1455
	Innocent VI.....1352	Pius II.....1458
	Urban V.....1362	Paul II.....1464
	Gregory XI.....1370	Sixtus IV.....1471
	Urban VI.....1378	Innocent VIII.....1484
	Boniface IX.....1389	Alexander VI.....1492
Benedict XIII.....1394		

## CHAPTER III.

*THE OTTOMAN TURKS.*

**Central Point: Siege and Conquest of Constantinople—1453 A.D.**

**English History: Reign of Henry VI.—1422-1461 A.D.**

**Scottish History: Reign of James II.—1437-1460 A.D.**

1. **The Seljuk Turks.**—The Turcomans, or Turks, had their home originally somewhere in the wild steppes between the Caspian Sea and Lake Aral. The first branch of this Tartar race that poured itself westward, extending their empire even to the Bosphorus, was that of the Seljuk Turks. They established their supremacy in the Caliphate of Bagdad in 1058. But their power went down into ruins before the terrible Mongol, Jenghis Khan, who in the thirteenth century drenched Asia with the blood of millions. One of his descendants captured Bagdad in 1258, and overthrew the Abbaside Caliphate.

2. **The Ottoman Turks.**—There was, however, another Turkish tribe which was destined to play a more brilliant part in the world's history. These were the Osmanlis or Ottomans, who derived their name from the Emir Osman or Othman, the founder of their empire. Othman, a handsome black-browed man, with very long arms, ruled the Turks from 1299 to 1326. The great object of his unceasing efforts was to conquer the possessions of the Byzantine Empire in Asia Minor; and when he lay on his deathbed, the news came that his son Urchan had captured the great city of Brusa. There the seat of the Ottoman Empire was for some time fixed.

3. **The Janissaries.**—The reign of Urchan (1326-1360) was marked by the establishment of the famous Janissaries ("New Troops"). Every year a thousand Christian children were torn from their parents, forced to become Moslems, and trained to a soldier's life by rigorous discipline. This was done yearly for three centuries; and thus was formed that terrible body of troops, whose fierce ardour and unpitying hearts made them first the safeguard and then the terror of the sultans.

4. **The Turks in Europe.**—Solyman, the eldest son of Urchan, having crossed the Hellespont one night with a few warriors, seized a castle on the European shore. In three days, three thousand Ottomans garrisoned the stronghold. This event marks the first firm footing gained by the Turks on European soil, of which they never since have lost their hold.

5. Under Murad or Amurath I. (1360–1389) Adrianople was taken by the Turks, and was made for a time the centre of their European possessions. A league was formed by the Slavonic nations on the banks of the Danube to expel the Ottoman invaders, but in vain. The Crescent—such was the device borne on the Turkish banners—still shone victorious in Thrace and Servia.

6. **The first Sultan.**—Bajazet, Murad's son, who reigned from 1389 to 1402, exchanged the title Emir for the prouder name of Sultan. At Nicopolis, he routed the chivalry of Hungary and France, which had mustered to roll back the flood of Moslem war. Greece, too, was ravaged by his victorious hordes. Steadily he seemed to be advancing in the gigantic plan of European conquest sketched out by his father, when the most terrific warrior Asia has ever produced, appeared on his eastern frontier and checked his triumphant career.

7. **Tamerlane: 1402 A.D.**—This was Timur Lenk (the Lame), whose name and surname have been corrupted into Tamerlane. He was a Mongol, descended from Jenghis Khan. From his capital, Samarcand, he spread his conquests on every side—from the Chinese Wall to the Nile; from the springs of the Ganges to the heart of Russia. Whenever this demon-conqueror took a city, he raised as a trophy of his success a pyramid of bleeding human heads. Bajazet was obliged to forego the intended siege of Constantinople by the attack of Tamerlane on the eastern frontier of his newly acquired dominions in Asia Minor. The decisive battle was fought at Angora, where Bajazet, utterly defeated, was made prisoner. The Sultan was carried about with the Mongol army in a litter with iron lattices, which gave rise to the common story of his imprisonment in an iron cage. He died, eight months afterwards, of a broken heart.

His conqueror Timur died in 1405, while on the march to invade China.

8. **Mahomet II. : 1451 A.D.**—Four Turkish sultans reigned between Bajazet and the conqueror of Constantinople. Murad II., last of the four, died at Adrianople in 1451; and his son Mahomet, crossing rapidly to Europe, was crowned second sultan of that name. He was a terrible compound of fine literary taste with revolting cruelty and lust. One of his very first acts, after he became sultan, was to cause his infant brother to be drowned, while the baby's mother was congratulating him on his accession.

9. **Siege of Constantinople : 1453 A.D.**—The great achievement of this sultan was the capture of Constantinople. After more than a year of busy preparation, seventy thousand Turks, commanded by Mahomet II. in person, sat down in the spring of 1453 before the capital of the empire. Their lines stretched across the landward or western side of the triangle on which the city is built. A double wall, and a great ditch one hundred feet deep, lay in their front; and behind this rampart the Emperor Constantine Palæologus marshalled his little band of defenders. A little band indeed it was, for scarcely six thousand out of a population of more than one hundred thousand souls would arm for the defence of the city; and Western Christendom was so dull or so careless, that, with the exception of two thousand mercenaries under a noble of Genoa, no foreign aid was sent to the defenders. The harbour of the Golden Horn, guarded by a strong chain across its mouth, sheltered only fourteen galleys. The Turkish fleet consisted of three hundred and twenty vessels of different sizes.

10. **Opening of the Siege : April 6.**—The siege began. On both sides cannon and muskets of a rude kind were used. One great gun deserves special notice. It was cast by a European brassfounder at Adrianople and threw a stone ball of six hundred pounds to the distance of a mile. But such a cannon could be fired only six or seven times a day. Lances and arrows flew thick from both sides; and heavy stones from the ballistas filled up the pauses of the cannonade.

11. At first fortune seemed to smile on the besieged. A vigorous assault of the Turks on the walls was repulsed, and the wooden tower they had used in the attack was burned.

12. One day in the middle of April the watchmen of the besieged saw the white sails of five ships gleaming on the southern horizon. They came from Chios, carrying to the beleaguered city fresh troops, wheat, wine, and oil. The Greeks, with anxious hearts, crowded the seaward wall. A swarm of Turkish boats pushed out to meet the daring barks, and, curving in a crescent shape, awaited their approach. Mahomet, riding by the edge of the sea, urged his sailors to the attack with cries and gestures. Three times the Turks endeavoured to board the enemy; but as often the flotilla reeled back in confusion, shattered with cannon shot and scorched with Greek fire, while the waters were strown with the floating wreck of the vessels that had been crushed by collision with the heavy Christian galleys. Steadily onward sailed the five ships, until they were safe in the harbour of the Golden Horn. The Turkish admiral was doomed by the furious sultan to be impaled; but the sentence was commuted to one hundred blows with a golden rod, which, we are told, Mahomet himself administered with right good will.

13. **The Turning-point.**—Then came the turning-point of the siege. The sultan, feeling that his attack by land must be seconded by one from the sea, formed a bold plan. It was to convey some of his ships overland from the Bosphorus to the upper end of the Golden Horn, and launch them there. The distance was six miles; but by means of rollers running on a tramway of greased planks, eighty of the Turkish vessels were carried over the rugged ground in one night. A floating battery was then made, from which the Turkish cannon began to play with fearful effect on the weakest side of the city.

14. **The grand Assault: May 29.**—When the attack had lasted for seven weeks, a broad gap was seen in the central rampart. Many attempts at negotiation had come to nothing, for Constantine refused to give up the city, and nothing else would satisfy the sultan. At last a day was fixed for the grand as-

sault. At daybreak the long lines of Turks made their attack. When the strength of the Christians was almost exhausted in endless strife with the swarms of irregular troops who led the way, the terrible Janissaries advanced. The storm grew louder, the rattle of the Turkish drums mingling with the thunder of the ordnance. When the defence grew slacker, a body of Turks, following the Janissary Hassan, clambered over the ruined wall into the city. Amid the rush, Constantine Palæologus, last of the Cæsars, fell dead, sabred by an unknown hand; and with him fell the Eastern Empire.

15. **Mahomet's Policy.**—At noon on the same day Mahomet summoned the Moslems to prayer in the church of St. Sophia—thus establishing the rites of Islam where Christian worship had been held ever since the days of Constantine the Great. It was not, however, the policy of the sultan to root out the Greek worship from the conquered city; and so, ten days after his victory, we find him installing a new patriarch, and announcing himself to be the protector of the Greek Church. To fill the ruined and deserted streets of the decayed city, he transplanted thither crowds from all parts of his empire; so that once more Constantinople was alive with a busy throng.

16. **Close of Mediæval History.**—The taking of Constantinople marks the close of Mediæval and the beginning of Modern History. One of its first and most remarkable consequences was a great dispersion of Greek scholars, and along with them of ancient manuscripts, over the countries of Western Europe. The civilization developed in these countries had been blocked out from a mass of barbarism. It was now brought into contact with the powerful influences of the old classical world. The result was an extraordinary quickening of the intellectual life of Europe. This movement first showed itself in Italy toward the close of the fifteenth century, and afterwards spread to the other European countries. It did not imply merely an extended knowledge of books, or an increase in the number of scholars. It consisted rather in an awakening of the human mind. "Men opened their eyes and saw;" and the sight of the vast fields that lay before it gave energy to the intelligence of man. The new

movement first appeared in the domain of literature and science, where it received the name of the Revival of Letters. From literature it passed to the domain of art, where it was called the Renaissance, or "New birth." Lastly, it showed itself in the sphere of religion and of civil politics in the form of the Reformation. Revival—Renaissance—Reformation: these are the three watchwords with which Europe entered on the era of Modern History.

## NOTES.

§ 1. *The Abbasside Caliphate.* See p. 95, § 11, and p. 103, § 9.

2. *Osmanli.* The modern Turks call themselves *Osmanli*—not *Turks*, the latter name implying rudeness and barbarism.

3. *Janissaries*, originally a body-guard of the Sultan. They subsequently became an order of infantry, and acquired great political influence.

**SUMMARY.**—The Turcomans, a Tartar race, had their home in the steppes between the Caspian and Lake Aral.—1326. The Ottoman Turks, a branch of this race, established an empire in Asia Minor, under Urchan.—1356. Solyman, Urchan's son, obtained a footing in Europe. Adrianople was for a time the Turkish capital in Europe.—1389-1402. Bajazet became the first Sultan. He was taken prisoner at Angora by Tamerlane, and died eight months after.—1453. Mahomet II. undertook the siege of Constantinople. At first the besieged withstood the attack; but by conveying some of his ships overland to the upper harbour, the Sultan was able to storm the city by sea. A breach was made in the central rampart, and the Turks entered the city.

## THE LAST EMPERORS OF THE EAST.

Michael VIII .....	A.D. 1261	Manuel Palæologus .....	A.D. 1391
Andronicus II. (Palæologus the Elder).....	1282	John Palæologus II.....	1425
Andronicus III. (the Younger).....	1328	Constantine XIII. (Palæologus).....	1448-53
John Palæologus I.....	1341		

## THE FIRST TWELVE TURKISH SULTANS.

Othman .....	A.D. 1299	Mahomet I.....	A.D. 1413
Urchan .....	1326	Murad II.....	1421
Murad I.....	1360	Mahomet II.....	1451
Bajazet I.....	1389	Bajazet II.....	1481
Solyman I.....	1403	Selim I.....	1512
Musa-Chelebi.....	1410	Solyman II. (the Magnificent).....	1520-66



## CHAPTER IV.

*THE EXPULSION OF THE MOORS FROM SPAIN.*

**Central Point: The Surrender of Granada—1492 A.D.**

**English History: Reign of Henry VII.—1485-1509 A.D.**

**Scottish History: Reign of James IV.—1488-1513 A.D.**

1. **The Caliphate of Cordova.**—We have seen the last of the Ommiads breaking loose from the Eastern Caliphate, and establishing the Caliphate of Cordova in 755. Their dominions soon extended as far north as to the Douro in the west and to the Ebro in the east. But among the mountains of Asturias the remains of the Visi-gothic nation, shattered on the field of Xeres (711), still survived; and these, breathing the free mountain air and eating the bread of hardship, became a race of heroes, who in succeeding generations rested not until the Moslems, driven continually southward, were at last expelled from the Peninsula.

2. **Abd-al-Rahman III. : 912-961 A.D.**—The greatest of the Ommiads in Spain was Abd-al-Rahman III. Having assumed the title of Caliph, he cleared the land of rebels, subdued the Christians of Leon, and developed the resources of the country with surprising wisdom. Roads, canals, and aqueducts spread a net-work of industry everywhere. Besides eighty cities of lower rank, there were six capitals glittering with gorgeous mosques and palaces. The fields smiled like fertile gardens. The seventeen universities, famous for the teaching of mathematics, astronomy, chemistry, and medicine, were thronged with students from every corner of Europe.

3. **Al-Hakem : 961-976 A.D.** — The peaceful reign of Al-Hakem, his successor, has been called the golden age of Arab literature in Spain (961-976). This prince delighted in the society of literary men; no present pleased him better than that of a good book. His chief enjoyment was in the collection of rare manuscripts, with which, to the number of six hundred thousand, he filled every corner of his palace: and this at a time when England, France, and Italy were steeped in intellectual darkness.

4. **A Moorish Dynasty in Spain : 1086 A.D.** — Quarrels for

the throne of Cordova broke up the great emirate; and in 1031, when the last of the Ommiads died, a number of petty princes sprang up, whose feuds led to their own destruction. Pressed hard by the Castilians, they called in the aid of the Moors, their neighbours in Northern Africa, and Moslems like themselves. Yussuf came over the strait with a great army burning with fanatic zeal, overthrew Alfonso VI. of Castile-Leon, and then subdued beneath his rule all the pigmy Saracen princes, whose battles he had come to fight. Thus, on the ruins of the once brilliant Saracen dynasty, a Moorish power was built up, whose glory, though long dimmed, still lingers in romantic twilight among the hills of Southern Spain.

5. **The Cid.**—Rising from amid the dust of these early wars was seen the famous hero of the Spanish ballads, Ruy Diaz; called by the Moors, whom he so often defeated, El Seid, the Cid ("lord"). Like the British Arthur, the outlines of his story are so dimmed that some have doubted his existence. According to the accepted story, he was born at Burgos in the eleventh century. Driven from Castile by Alfonso, he began a guerilla warfare against the Moors of Aragon, where he fixed his castle on a crag, which is still called the Rock of the Cid. His great achievement was the conquest, after a long siege, of the Moorish city of Valencia. There he established a little state, over which he ruled until his death in 1099.

6. **The Moors confined to Granada: 1236 A.D.**—The first half of the thirteenth century was a fatal time for the Moslems in Spain. After their power was shattered in the great battle of Tolosa (1212), the Caliphate of Cordova dwindled down to one-half of its former size, and was pressed to the south of the Peninsula by the five kingdoms of Portugal, Leon, Castile, Navarre, and Aragon. The crowns of Leon and Castile were united in 1230 in the person of Ferdinand III. (the Saint), whose arms carried defeat and dismay into the heart of Moorish Andalusia. He took from the Moslems the rich basin of the Guadalquivir, the cradle of their Spanish dominion. Cordova fell in 1236, and the Moors were then forced to concentrate their power within the mountain-land of Granada.



SPAIN—TIME OF FERDINAND AND ISABELLA.

7. There shone the last blaze of Moorish splendour in Spain. Though shrunken to a circuit of one hundred and eighty leagues, the kingdom of Granada remained strong and glorious for two centuries and a half, defying the chivalry of Spain, and enriched by a commerce which carried her silks and sword-blades, her dyed leather, her fabrics of wool, flax, and cotton, to the bazaars of Constantinople, Egypt, and even of India. Mulberry trees and sugar canes clothed her fertile valleys. The fair Vega, or cultivated plain, sweeping away from the city of Granada for ten leagues, brought forth delicious fruits and heavy grain.

8. **The Alhambra.**—To the east rose the white peaks of the

Sierra Nevada ; and crowning one of the two hills on which the city stood, was the palace or royal fortress of the Alhambra, still even in its ruins the great sight of Spain. Outwardly, the Alhambra seems to be but a plain square red tower ; but within, in spite of monkish whitewash and the vandalism of Charles V., it is a group of halls, courts, and colonnades, of wonderful grace



COURT IN THE ALHAMBRA.

and beauty. Slender columns rivalling the palm-tree ; walls cut and pierced into trellis-work, resembling in its exquisite delicacy lace, or fine ivory carving ; domes honey-combed with azure and vermillion cells, and bright with stalactites of dropping gold ; groves of orange and myrtle, clustering around

marble basins and silvery fountains, formed the scene of fairy splendour amid which the monarchs of Granada held their court.

9. **Marriage of Ferdinand and Isabella: 1469 A.D.**—Toward the end of the fifteenth century Ferdinand, son of the King of Aragon, married Isabella daughter of the King of Castile. This happy union was a great turning-point in the history of Spain. On the death of her brother Henry in 1474, Isabella was proclaimed Queen of Castile; and Ferdinand received the crown of Aragon in 1479 when his father died. Thus all Spain, except the little states of Navarre and Granada, lay under the double sceptre of this illustrious pair.

10. **The War in Granada: 1481 A.D.**—Ferdinand and his wife formed the design of rooting out the Moorish dominion from the Peninsula. The famous War of Granada began. The surprise of the little border town Zahara, by the Moors, provoked the storm. Well might an old Moorish priest cry out, when he heard the news, "Woe is me; the ruins of Zahara will fall on our own heads!"

11. **Fall of Alhama: 1482 A.D.**—Ere long the first stone fell. The Marquis of Cadiz, gathering five thousand five hundred horse and foot, marched upon Alhama, a strong city embosomed among hills, about eight leagues from Granada. In the silence of night the citadel was surprised; but the city was not so easily taken. Barricades were flung up, cross-bow bolts and arquebus balls swept the narrow streets, while women and children poured hot oil and pitch from the flat roofs on the Christian soldiery. But all in vain. Moorish blood choked the gutters; Moorish gold and jewels rewarded the exulting victors. Twice during the same year vain attempts were made to recover this key of Granada.

12. **Siege of Granada: 1491 A.D.**—Gradually the circle of fire narrowed around the city of Granada itself. During the spring and autumn of 1490, the Vega was ravaged under the very shadow of the Moorish capital. Early in the next year, Ferdinand, with fifty thousand men, encamped before the city, which was crowded with fugitives from all the country around. Challenges often passed between the besieged and the be-

siegers ; and the Vega was the scene of many single combats between Spanish and Moorish cavaliers. The bright eyes of Isabella and her ladies kindled the valour of the gallant Dons ; and surely the dark-skinned warriors fought none the less bravely for remembering the soft Moorish eyes that watched their deeds from the lattices of Granada. But Isabella took, besides, a more active share in the siege, for she rode about in full armour, inspecting, reviewing, and encouraging her troops.

**13. Surrender of Granada : 1492 A.D.**—Force of arms, however, did less for Ferdinand than the building of Santa Fé. In three months this town arose where his tents had been. Solid stone took the place of fluttering canvas ; and the hearts of the Moors died within them when they saw the masonry which typified the stern resolve of the Christian king to win Granada. Famine, too, began to be felt. Then, unknown to the people, Abdallah and his advisers entered into negotiations with the Spaniards. On a fixed day the Moorish king gave up the keys of the Alhambra ; and the great cross of silver, which had been throughout the war the leading ensign of the Christian host, was borne into the Moorish capital amid the pealing notes of the *Te Deum*.

**14. Departure of Abdallah.**—A few hours later, Abdallah reined his horse on a rocky hill, which is still called “The last Sigh of the Moor,” to take a farewell look of Granada. His eyes were brimming with tears. “Well doth it become thee,” said his mother, “to weep like a woman for what thou couldst not defend as a man.” The treaty of surrender had left him still a shadow of royalty—the lordship of a mountain territory, for which he was to do homage to the Castilian sovereigns.

**15. Power of Spain.**—With the fall of Granada ended the Moslem power in Spain, after an existence of nearly eight centuries. Thus was the loss of Constantinople to Christendom in the east of Europe atoned for by the gain of Granada in the west. Relieved from an enemy within her own borders, Spain was now consolidated, and by-and-by became, in conjunction with Austria, the greatest power in Europe. The Spanish supremacy lasted till the close of the Thirty Years’ War (1648), when France became the leading State.

## NOTES.

§ 5. *Guerilla warfare*, a series of sharp attacks and retreats, without closing in conflict.  
 8. *The Alhambra*. It was founded about 1258. Little of the ancient palace is now left, a great part of it having been removed by Charles V. to make way for a winter palace, which was never completed.

11. *Arquebus*, an old and clumsy form of musket.

13. *The Te Deum*, a hymn or song of thanksgiving, which begins with the words, *Te Deum laudamus*—"We praise thee, O God." It is thought to have been written by Augustine and Ambrose about 390 A.D.

14. *Abdallah*. After holding the sovereignty for a year, Abdallah sold it to Ferdinand and crossed to Africa, where he died in battle.

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**SUMMARY.**—912-961. Abd-al-Rahman III. was the greatest of the Ommiads in Spain; under him the country flourished.—961-976. Al-Hakem, his successor, was a great patron of literary men.—1086. A Moorish dynasty was established in Spain. The Cid ruled over a little state in Valencia.—1212. At the battle of Tolosa the Moslem power was crippled.—1236. Cordova fell, and the Moors were forced to retire to Granada.—1469. By the marriage of Ferdinand with Isabella, the kingdoms of Castile and Aragon were united.—1482. Alhama was taken.—1491-92. Granada was besieged by Ferdinand, and surrendered by Abdallah, who took his last look of the town from a hill ever since called "The last Sigh of the Moor."

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### KINGS OF CASTILE DURING THE FOURTEENTH AND FIFTEENTH CENTURIES.

Ferdinand IV. .... A.D. 1295-1312	Henry III. .... A.D. 1390
Alfonso XI. .... 1312	John II. .... 1406
Peter the Cruel. .... 1350	Henry IV. .... 1454
Henry II. .... 1369	Ferdinand V. (the Catholic).... 1474
John I. .... 1379	

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## CHAPTER V.

### *THE DISCOVERY AND CONQUEST OF AMERICA.*

**Central Point:** Columbus lands on San Salvador—Oct. 12, 1492 A.D.

**English History:** Reign of Henry VII.—1485-1509 A.D.

**Scottish History:** Reign of James IV.—1488-1513 A.D.

1. The reign of Ferdinand and Isabella derived still greater lustre from the discovery of America, and the planting there of the Spanish flag, only a few months after the conquest of Granada.

2. **Early Life of Columbus.**—Christopher Columbus (the Latin form of the Italian Colombo; in Spanish, Colon) was the son of a wool-comber, and was born at Genoa about 1435.

A few months' study at Pavia deepened his natural love for mathematics. He was especially fond of geography, astronomy, and navigation. At fourteen he went to sea.

3. After many voyages and adventures, he settled, about 1470, at Lisbon, which was then the great centre of maritime enterprise. He had sobered down into a man of thirty-five, gentle, temperate, with a long fair freckled face, sharp light-gray eyes, and flowing hair prematurely white. His chief occupation, when not at sea, was the construction of maps,—a pursuit which brought him into contact with the leading scientific men of the day.



COLUMBUS.

4. **A Western Route to Asia.**—As he pored over his maps, a grand idea began to take definite shape within his brain. He became convinced that it was possible to reach Asia by sailing westward across the Atlantic. His own thoughts on the globular shape of the Earth, and the opinions expressed by old writers on geography, brought him to this conclusion. It was confirmed by the fact that pieces of carved wood, huge reeds, and pine-trees—even two bodies of men of unknown race—had been drifted towards Europe by westerly winds, and picked up in the Atlantic, or washed ashore at the Azores; and Columbus's soul kindled within him, as he felt that he was the man chosen by Heaven to carry the light of the Cross into a new world beyond the western waves.

5. His plans were first submitted to John II. of Portugal, who was mean enough, while haggling over terms, to send a vessel out on the proposed route. A few days' sailing, however, cowed the would-be robbers, who put back without having seen anything but a waste of stormy waters. In 1485 we find



Columbus in the south of Spain, bent on pressing his views on King Ferdinand. The time was not in his favour, for the land was ringing with the din of the Moorish war. Obtaining an audience at last, he pleaded eloquently for aid. But he was put off, his plans being referred to pedantic monks, who either could or would make no decision. In truth, for many of these years his bitter portion was that hope deferred which maketh the heart sick.

6. **An Expedition prepared.**—At last the banner of Spain floated on the Alhambra. The war was over. Once more Columbus laid his plans before the court. Filled with the grandeur of his scheme, he demanded that he should be admiral of the expedition, and viceroy of all the lands he discovered, and that he should receive one tenth of all the gains. As an offset to these demands he offered to bear an eighth of the expense. Unfortunately the Castilian treasury was empty; and Ferdinand, grudging the two ships and the 3,000 crowns needful for the voyage, had already rejected the proposals of Columbus, when Isabella declared that she would pawn her jewels for the cost of the expedition. Columbus, who had left Santa Fé, was recalled, and an arrangement was completed.

7. **Departure from Palos: August 3, 1492 A.D.**—On a Friday morning, in the summer of 1492, three ships—two of them being caravels, or light undecked boats, called the *Pinta* and the *Nina*, and the third a larger vessel, the *Santa Maria*, which bore the flag of Columbus—left the harbour of Palos in Andalusia. One hundred and twenty men were on board. As the last farewells were said, tears fell fast and hope died out in every breast but one. True as the needle to the pole, the brave heart of the admiral pointed to its grand purpose. After touching at the Canaries, they sailed westward for forty days. Sea-weed drifting past, and birds wheeling around the ships, seemed to betoken that land was near. But as day after day rose and set on the heaving circle of water, unbroken by any speck of shore, the murmurs of the crews grew deep. Clouds on the horizon deceived them oftener than once. On the evening of the 10th of October the clamour broke wildly out. Go home they would.

But still the iron will of Columbus beat down these feeblers souls, and still the prows pointed to the west. Sternly he told them that, happen what might, he was resolved to go on, and, with God's blessing, to succeed. Next day their hopes revived, for they saw green rock fish playing in the sea, river weeds, and a branch with fresh berries floating by; and they picked up a reed, a board, and a carved stick.

8. **Land seen: October 12.**—That evening at ten o'clock, Columbus, standing on the raised poop of his ship, thought he saw a light on the dark horizon. He called two of his associates. The one saw it; the other caught some gleams as it rose and fell in the dim night. Four hours later, at two o'clock, a shot from the *Pinta* announced that land was ahead. And when that famous Friday morning dawned, there it lay six miles off, the dream of many struggling years realized at last—a low green shore fringed with many trees!

9. **The Landing.**—Columbus, dressed in rich scarlet, landed with the royal banner of Spain in his hand. Kissing the welcome soil and shedding tears of joy, he returned thanks to God; and then with drawn sword he took possession of the island in the name of the king of Spain. The island, which he named San Salvador, was one of the Bahama group. The simple natives, who had at first fled in fear to the woods, soon returned, and timidly made friends with the Spaniards, touching their beards and wondering at their white faces. Cruising among these islands—which have ever since been called the West Indies from the mistaken idea of Columbus that they formed a part of Asia—the Spaniards discovered Cuba and Hispaniola.

10. **Return to Palos: March 15, 1493 A.D.** — Columbus reached Palos again just seven months and twelve days from the sailing of the expedition. His reception at Barcelona was a brilliant triumph. The king and queen, rising to receive him, bestowed on him the rare honour of allowing him to sit in their presence. He told his story; showed the birds, the plants, the gold ore, and the natives he had brought from the New World; and when he ceased to speak, the sovereigns fell

on their knees, while a hymn of thanksgiving rose from the assembled choir.

**11. Death of Columbus: 1506 A.D.**—Columbus made other three voyages of discovery. In the second of these (1498–1500) he discovered Trinidad, the mainland of South America, and the mouth of the Orinoco. On his return to Hispaniola, a false charge of oppressing the colonists was brought against him, and he was superseded by Bobadilla, who sent him in fetters to Spain. These irons he kept ever afterwards hanging in his private room, to remind him, as he said, of the ingratitude of princes; and he ordered them to be buried in his grave. He returned from his last voyage in 1504, but he knew not that he had discovered a new continent. He believed that the lands he had seen were parts of Asia. This greatest of the world's sailors laid down his weary head to die at Valladolid, May 20th, 1506.

**12. Cortez in Mexico: 1518 A.D.**—In 1518, the Spanish governor of Cuba sent an officer, Hernando Cortez, with ten ships and six hundred men, to conquer Mexico, then newly discovered. Having founded the colony of Vera Cruz as a basis of operations, Cortez broke all his ships in pieces, so as to shut himself and his soldiers up in the invaded land.

**13. Montezuma was the emperor of the Mexicans.** Gradually advancing through his territories, the Spanish force at last reached the capital. Everywhere they were regarded as deities—children of the sun. Scrolls of cotton cloth were carried far and wide through the land, on which were pictured pale-faced bearded warriors, trampling horses, ships with spreading wings, and cannons breathing out lightning. The emperor admitted Cortez to his capital, but at the same time sent a secret expedition to attack Vera Cruz. The hopes of the Mexicans revived when they saw the head of a Spaniard carried through the land; for then they knew that their foes were mortal. At this crisis Cortez resolved on a bold stroke. Seizing Montezuma, he carried him to the Spanish quarters, and forced him to acknowledge himself a vassal of Spain.

**14. Conquest of Mexico: 1521 A.D.**—Having held Mexico

for six months, Cortez left it, in order to defeat Narvaez, whom the Cuban government, jealous of his success, had sent against him with nearly a thousand men. During his absence all was uproar and confusion. Two thousand Mexican nobles had been massacred for the sake of their golden ornaments; and the Spanish quarters were surrounded by a furious crowd. The return of Cortez, with a force increased by the troops of the defeated Narvaez, was oil cast on flame. Montezuma, striving to mediate, was killed by a stone flung by one of his angry subjects. The Spaniards were for a time driven from the city; but in the valley of Otumba (1520) the Mexicans were routed, and their golden standard was taken. Soon afterwards the new emperor was made prisoner, stretched on burning coals, and gibbeted. The capture of Mexico, after a siege of seventy-five days, was the final blow. Cortez, like Columbus, was coldly looked on at home. He died in 1547 at Seville, aged sixty-two.

**15. Early Life of Pizarro.**—The conqueror of Peru was Francisco Pizarro, a man who could neither read nor write, and whose early days were spent in herding swine. Having run away from home in early life, he became a soldier, and saw much service in the New World. Between 1524 and 1528, while exploring the coast of Peru, he formed the design of conquering that golden land. He was tempted by the abundance of the precious metals which glittered everywhere, forming not merely the ornaments of the people, but the commonest utensils of every-day life.

**16. Landing in Peru: 1531 A.D.**—He sailed from Panama with one hundred and eighty-six men in February, 1531. A civil war then raging in Peru between two brothers, who were rivals for the throne, made his task an easier one than it might otherwise have been. The strife seems to have been to some extent decided before the Spaniards landed, for Atahualpa was then Inca of Peru—so they called their king.

**17. Conquest of Peru: 1533 A.D.**—Pizarro found the Inca holding a splendid court near the city of Caxamarca; and the eyes of the Spanish pirates gleamed when they saw the glitter

of gold and jewels in the royal camp. The visit of the Spanish leader was returned by the Inca, who came in a golden chair, en-



PIZARRO.

compassed by ten thousand guards. A friar, crucifix in hand, strove to convert this worshipper of the sun, telling him at the same time that the Pope had given Peru to the King of Spain. The argument was all lost on the Inca, who could not see how the Pope was able to give away what was not his, and who, besides, scorned the idea of giving up the

worship of so magnificent a god as the sun. The furious priest turned with a cry for vengeance to the Spaniards. They were ready, for the tragedy had been well rehearsed beforehand. The match was laid to the levelled cannon, and a storm of shot from great guns and small burst on the crowd of Peruvians, amid whose slaughter and dismay Pizarro carried off the Inca. As the price of freedom, Atahualpa offered to fill his cell with gold. The offer was accepted, and the treasure divided among the Spaniards; but the unhappy Inca was strangled after all. The capture of Cuzco completed the wonderfully easy conquest of Peru.

18. Pizarro founded Lima in 1535; and six years later was slain by conspirators, who burst into his palace during the mid-day siesta.

## NOTES.

§ 9. Formed a part of Asia. The aborigines of America are still called Indians from the same error.

18. Siesta, a short sleep taken about midday in hot countries, especially in Spain. The name is derived from the Latin *sexta (hora)*, the sixth hour after sunrise; that is, noon.

**SUMMARY.**—1470. Christopher Columbus, a native of Genoa, settled in Lisbon. Believing that Asia might be reached by sailing westward across the Atlantic, he proposed to organize an expedition, and submitted plans to John II. of Portugal, and then to Ferdinand of Spain.—1492. Arrangements for Columbus's departure were completed, and he set sail with three ships from Palos. The first land he came to was an island, one of the Bahama group, which he named San Salvador.—1493. He returned to Spain, and was triumphantly received by the king.—1506. After having made three more voyages, Columbus died at Valladolid.—1518. Cortez was despatched to Mexico by the governor of Cuba.—1521. The conquest of Mexico was completed.—1531. Peru was invaded by Pizarro.—1533. The murder of the Inca, and the capture of Cuzco, left the Spaniards masters of Peru.

### KINGS OF ARAGON DURING THE FOURTEENTH AND FIFTEENTH CENTURIES.

James II. ....	A.D. 1291–1327	Ferdinand (the Just) .....	A.D. 1412
Alfonso IV. ....	1327	Alfonso V. ....	1416
Peter IV. ....	1336	John II., King of Navarre. ....	1458
John I. ....	1387	Ferdinand II. (and V.), the {	1479
Martin I. ....	1395	Catholic .....	
Interregnum. ....	1410		

## CHAPTER VI.

### LIFE IN ITALY AND SPAIN DURING THE CLOSE OF THE MIDDLE AGES.

## ITALY.

1. **Rise of Cathedrals.**—During the last years of the tenth century a great horror fell on all Christendom. It was everywhere believed that the last day of the year 999 would close the book of human history. And so everything was neglected. But when the mornings of 1000 A.D. grew brighter as the year rolled on, hope revived. Men felt that they had obtained a new lease of life; and one striking form their gratitude took was the rearing of those magnificent cathedrals, which are the noblest monuments of the Middle Ages. In Italy, as over all

Europe, many a solemn minster arose. Among the Italian temples of that date were the Cathedral of Pisa, and St. Mark's at Venice. In Italy, pure Gothic architecture never took root. There are, indeed, buildings called Gothic there; but the style is an awkward mixture of classic and Gothic. There are specimens of Norman buildings in Southern Italy; and traces exist of Moorish mason-work too, especially in Sicily.

2. **Florentine Houses.**—The history of early Florence may be read in the dark, square, rough-hewn mansions, built for her restless nobles. Four piles of building, unadorned even by a pillar, surrounded a central court. On the summit frowned a heavy cornice, like a rampart, as indeed it was. The lower story rose some thirty feet, either without windows, or pierced by a few grated loop-holes. Within such dark prison-houses the nobles were often forced to shut themselves, when the commons came surging like a stormy sea down the street with pikes and cross-bows, and with shouts of war.

3. **Italian Mercenaries.**—The constant feuds of the Italian towns drew into the peninsula hordes of mercenary soldiers. These free-lances, or companies of adventurers, roved from city to city, living by murder and pillage, and ready to draw sword in the cause of the highest bidder. Sometimes the chances of war gave them supreme power in the State in whose cause or against whose freedom they were fighting. Since it was their object to make their profession pay, they lengthened out a war into campaigns; and often for the length of a summer day rival bands of these rovers, tilting gracefully, perhaps unhorsing a foe now and again, fought without bloodshed, merely playing at soldiers.

4. **Monks and Monasteries.**—Everywhere throughout Italy the shaven crown and sad-coloured robe of the monk were seen. These men were often of the highest birth. The novice generally spent his preparatory year in herding cattle and in other drudgery; and sometimes, at the time of admission, he was forced to lay his cowed head on the bare earth for three days and nights, while he mused on the mysteries of religion. The chief monasteries of Italy were placed high among the wooded

cliffs of the Apennines. Most of the religious orders arose between the eighth and the thirteenth century. The close of this period was marked by the institution of the two orders of begging friars—Franciscans and Dominicans—beneath whose patched gowns, girdled with rope, proud and worldly hearts too often lurked.

5. **Pilgrimages.**—The devotion of the people found vent chiefly in pilgrimages. The Holy House of the Virgin at Loretto, said to have been placed on the hill by a miracle, was a favourite resort of remorseful penitents. The Jubilee Pilgrimages drew crowds to Rome every fifty years. And for three months of 1399, there went through all Italy bands of penitents, dressed in white, with crucifix in hand, singing a low wailing hymn to the Virgin. It was no uncommon thing, about the same time, to see Flagellants trooping along through the city streets with bleeding backs and limbs, on which their own cruel hands were laying the scourge.

6. **Life in Venice.**—In Venice the merchants went on 'Change in the little square of the Rialto. In the cool evenings, the bridges were thronged with sailors, glass-workers, and silk-weavers. The waters of the canal were alive with the black-peaked gondolas. Faction-fights, sanctioned by the authorities, commonly took place on the Bridge of St. Barnabas, where black cap and sash slashed with stiletto or with sword at his opposite neighbour, who, dwelling on the other side of the Grand Canal, wore red. Spies crept everywhere in Venice. The terror of the time has been already spoken of, when often in the dead midnight a sullen splash in the waters told but too surely that to-morrow would see in some princely house a vacant chair that would never be filled again.

7. **The Gilds of Florence.**—The citizens of Florence belonged to gilds of two grades—Greater and Less. The seven Greater trades were lawyers, dealers in foreign cloth, dealers in wool, silk-mercers, and, higher still, furriers, apothecaries, and goldsmiths. Among the fourteen Less gilds were butchers, smiths, shoemakers, builders. The seven Greater had each its own consul, council, and standard-bearer, who led the gild to war.



Such was the arrangement of the Guelf Constitution of Florence, formed in 1266.

8. **Amusements.**—Shows of various kinds were provided for the people by the rulers. The Carnival—wildest of modern Italian revels—was in the Middle Ages a religious festival only. There were, of course, in a land of song many minstrels. Sometimes, as at Mantua in 1340, a court of pastime was proclaimed, to which from all parts of Italy resorted a motley crowd, princes and nobles mingling with actors, rope-dancers, and clowns. The glittering, many-coloured Harlequin of Christmas pantomimes, and his partner Columbine, made their first appearance on the Italian comic stage. The tragedy of Punch and Judy, too, so often enacted in our streets, had its origin in the Italian puppet-show. The lighter amusements and pageants of chivalry, such as contests in music and poetry, and mock-trials on points of honour, prevailed to a considerable extent in Italy; but rougher sports, like the tournament, had scarcely any home in the peninsula.

9. The court of the Florentine Medici shone conspicuously as the most splendid scene of mediæval life in Italy. The Roman court of the Borgias, a Spanish family of whom two held the popedom (Calixtus III. and Alexander VI.), presented a spectacle of gilded and jewelled crime hardly paralleled in history.

10. **Literature and Art.**—Her works of literature and art give unfading lustre to mediæval Italy. Dante and Petrarch are foremost among her poets; and though all must lament the licentious taint which sullies Boccaccio's pages, none can help acknowledging the graceful beauty of many of his "Hundred Tales." The noonday of Italian art had not yet come. But to the close of the Middle Ages belongs Leonardo da Vinci, the painter of "The Last Supper."

#### SPAIN.

11. **Chivalry in Spain.**—Chivalry lingered in Spain long after it had died out in other parts of Europe. It received its death-blow from the sarcastic pen of Cervantes, whose "Don Quixote"

turned the knight-errant into ridicule. The hostility of Moors and Spaniards contributed much to keep alive the spirit of knighthood; for the Moors were brilliant cavaliers, skilled in all knightly exercises, and therefore foemen well worthy of the Spanish steel. The Moors of Granada especially were noted for their skill with the cross-bow and in horsemanship. The chivalry of the Spanish Moors displayed itself in the freedom granted to their wives and daughters, who, unlike the women of Mahometan lands in general, mingled freely in the most public society.

**12. Three Military Orders.**—Three great military brotherhoods succeeded the dominion of the Templars and Hospitallers in Spain. These were the Orders of San Jago di Compostella, Calatrava, and Alcántara. The chief object of the Order of San Jago (St. James), which was established by papal bull in 1175, was to protect from the attacks of the Moors those who were making a pilgrimage to the saint's tomb in Galicia. The cavaliers wore a white mantle, embroidered with a sword and the scallop shell, which was the device of their patron. The knights of Calatrava, whose order was established in 1164, kept perfect silence at table and in bed, ate meat only three times a week, and slept sword by side. The knights of Alcantara wore a white mantle with a green cross.

**13. The Inquisition.**—The reign of Ferdinand and Isabella was remarkable for the establishment of the Inquisition in Spain. Four priests, armed with terrible powers, were sent in 1480 to commence operations in Seville, Pope Sixtus IV. having already issued a bull to authorize their appointment. Ere a year had passed, three hundred Jews had perished. Suddenly and silently the accused was snatched from his friends. No one but his jailer and a priest was permitted to see him. If he refused to confess his guilt, the torture was applied in a dungeon, the thick walls of which no cry could pierce. Then with dislocated joints and crushed bones he was flung into a dark cell once more, perhaps not to leave it again but for the last scene.

**14. The Auto da Fé.**—That was the Auto da Fé ("Act of Faith"). The highest nobles of Spain attended the office, clad

in black, and bearing the flag of the Inquisition. The Romish priests stood around, robed in their gorgeous vestments. The wretched victims were brought out to die, clad in long robes of coarse wool, dyed yellow, and painted with the cross in red. The populace thronged to witness the spectacle; and a savage joy thrilled the crowds as the red-tongued flame licked up the life of the martyr.

15. **Learned Women.**—In the days of Isabella, the study of Latin and rhetoric was fashionable among the ladies of Spain. The queen herself was a woman of much literary taste, speaking her own tongue with elegance, and versed, too, in several modern languages. Latin she studied after her accession, and she took only a year to gain great proficiency in it. She took delight in the collection of manuscripts; which in that day were, according to Moorish fashion, bound in bright colours, and richly decorated. We read of Spanish ladies of that time lecturing from the university chairs on classical literature and kindred subjects.

16. The first printing-press in Spain seems to have been set up at Valencia in 1474; and the first book printed there was a collection of songs in honour of the Virgin.

17. **Dress.**—A meeting of Ferdinand and Isabella during the Moorish war is thus described by the curate of Los Palacios: "The queen sat in a saddle-chair embossed with gold and silver, on a chestnut mule, with housings of crimson and bridle of gold-embroidered satin. The infanta, her daughter, wore a scarlet mantle of the Moorish fashion, a black hat laced with gold, and a skirt of velvet. The king figured in a crimson doublet, and breeches of yellow satin, a cuirass and Moorish scimitar. Both king and queen wore a close-fitting coif of fine stuff below the hat, to confine the hair."

18. **The Tournament.**—The tournament was the great pastime of the day. Splendid galleries, hung with silk and cloth of gold, enclosed the lists. After the day's tilting, music and dancing enlivened the evening hours. Bull-fights—now the grand national sport of Spain—and the graceful tilt of reeds were foremost among the popular amusements.

**19. The Drama.**—We find dramatic entertainments taking their rise in Spain, as in other European countries, in the “mysteries” or sacred plays of the clergy. A law, passed in the thirteenth century to forbid some profanities that were creeping into the performances, laid down as fit subjects for exhibition the birth, crucifixion, and resurrection of Christ. Toward the close of the Middle Ages we read of the Spanish stage being constructed of a few planks laid on benches. The “properties”—consisting of four dresses of white fur and gilt leather, with accompanying beards, wigs, and crooks—were then carried in a single sack.

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#### NOTES.

§ 4. **Franciscans**, founded by St. Francis of Assisi, about 1220; called also Grey Friars. With them poverty was made a virtue.

5. **The Jubilee Pilgrimages.** In 1300 Pope Boniface VIII. issued a bull granting indulgence to all penitents who should visit Rome in that year. Many availed themselves of this privilege, and the pilgrimages were appointed to take place every hundred, and afterwards every fifty, years. The word *jubilee* is taken from the Jewish institution, “the year of jubilee.”

**Flagellants**, persons who scourged themselves as a religious discipline. (Latin, *flagellum*, a small whip.)

8. **The Carnival**, a festival in Italy held at the beginning of the Lent season.

10. **Dante, Petrarch**, etc. See pages 159, 160.

11. **Don Quixote.** One of this hero's exploits—that of running a tilt against a wind-mill—has become proverbial for hare-brained folly. Hence “Quixotic” as a synonym for rash, precipitate.

12. **San Jago di Compostella, Calatrava, and Alcántara**, towns in Spain at which the Orders had their headquarters, and which they guarded.

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**SUMMARY.**—After the beginning of the eleventh century many cathedrals were built in Italy. The Florentine nobles made themselves secure in strong square mansion houses. Mercenary soldiers roved from city to city, offering their services to the highest bidder. There were many monks, and these often men of the highest birth. Two orders of begging friars—Franciscans and Dominicans—were instituted. Pilgrimages were made by penitents to the House of the Virgin at Loretto. Faction-fights, between blacks and reds, were frequent on one of the bridges of Venice. The citizen-gilds of Florence were of two grades—Greater and Less. Shows were provided for the people by the rulers. Great names of this period are, in literature, Dante, Petrarch, and Boccaccio; in art, Leonardo da Vinci. In Spain, chivalry was brought into disrepute by the “Don Quixote” of Cervantes. Three Spanish military orders arose. The Inquisition was established in the reign of Ferdinand and Isabella. Learning became fashionable among the Spanish ladies. The tournament and the bull-fight were favourite amusements. The Spanish drama took its rise in the “mysteries” of the clergy.

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#### GREAT NAMES OF THE FIFTH PERIOD.

**FUST (JOHANN).**—Goldsmith and engraver of Mainz—one of the earliest printers—associated for five years (1450-55) with Gutenberg in the working of a press with movable metal types—first work printed, “An Indulgence of Pope Nicolas V.”—died at Paris, 1466.

- GUTENBERG (JOHANN).**—Born at Mainz about 1400—belonged to a noble family—invented printing with movable types, 1441—one of his best productions was an edition of the Bible, called the “Mazarin Bible,” because the first known copy was found in the library of Cardinal Mazarin—died 1468.
- THOMAS À KEMPIS.**—Born at Kempen, near Cologne, about 1380—became a canon of the monastery of Mount St. Agnes—a good copyist—transcribed the Bible, the Missal, and other religious books—said to be author of four books of great merit, entitled, “De Imitatione Christi.” The work is also ascribed to John Gerson of Paris, who died 1429—À Kempis died in 1471.
- SAVONAROLA (JEROME).**—Born at Ferrara, 1452—a great political and religious reformer—a Dominican monk—wrote many works in Latin and in Italian—died 1498.
- POLITIAN (ANGELO).**—Born in Tuscany, 1454—a great friend of Lorenzo de Medici, whose children he educated—professor of Latin and Greek at Florence—translated into Latin the History of Herodian—wrote also Italian poems—his “Orfeo” is said to be the earliest specimen of the opera or Italian musical drama.
- DA VINCI (LEONARDO).**—Born in the Val d’Arno, below Florence, 1452—a famous painter—remarkable for his knowledge of other arts and sciences—his works are not numerous—one of his greatest is “The Last Supper,” a fresco—wrote many treatises—lived much at Rome, but died at Amboise in France; 1519.
- RAPHAEL (SANTI or SANZIO).**—Born at Urbino, 1483—the greatest of modern painters—lived at Florence and at Rome—the “Transfiguration” usually considered his masterpiece—famous for his Madonnas—died in 1520, at the early age of 37.

## CHRONOLOGY OF THE FIFTH PERIOD.

### FOURTEENTH CENTURY—*continued.*

Battle of Nicopolis: Hungarians defeated by Turks .....	A.D. 1396
Treaty of Calmar, uniting Denmark, Sweden, and Norway .....	1397
Tamerlane takes Delhi .....	1398

### FIFTEENTH CENTURY.

Tamerlane defeats Bajazet at Angora .....	1402
Battle of Tannenberg: overthrow of the Teutonic Order .....	1410
Battle of Agincourt .....	1415
John Huss burned .....	1415
Jerome of Prague burned .....	1416
Joan of Arc victorious at Orleans .....	1429
Art of printing invented by Gutenberg of Mainz .....	1441
Constantine Palæologus, last of the Byzantine emperors .....	1448
Constantinople taken by the Turks .....	1453
War of the Roses begins in England .....	1455
Lorenzo the Magnificent rules Florence .....	1478-92
Union of Castile and Aragon under Ferdinand and Isabella .....	1479
The Inquisition introduced into Spain .....	1480
Battle of Bosworth: War of the Roses ends .....	1485
Granada wrested from the Moors .....	1492
Columbus discovers America .....	1492
Invasion of Italy by Charles VIII. of France .....	1494
Cape of Good Hope doubled by Vasco da Gama .....	1497
Savonarola burned at Florence .....	1498

## Sixth Period.

From the Reformation to the close of  
the Thirty Years' War.

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### CHAPTER I.

#### *THE REFORMATION.*

**Central Point:** the Diet of Augsburg—1530 A.D.

**English History:** Reign of Henry VIII.—1509–1547 A.D.

**Scottish History:** Reign of James V.—1513–1542 A.D.

1. **Unsuccessful Reformers.**—There were Protestants before Luther. John Wyclif in England; John Huss and Jerome of Prague, the Bohemians, who perished in the flames at Constance; and Savonarola, who met a similar fate at Florence—all deserved the noble name, though they were unsuccessful as reformers. These early reformers failed, not from any lack of energy or of earnestness in themselves, but because Europe was not ripe—because the time had not come for the great change. Before Luther arose, the Revival of Learning had taken place, and with it a spirit of individual independence and responsibility had spread over Europe. The feudal despotism had been shaken to its foundations, and the papal despotism was losing its hold on men. The moral and social influences at work were powerfully aided by the art of printing (invented by Gutenberg of Mainz in 1441), which multiplied books, and especially copies of the Scriptures, and brought them within reach of the unlearned and the simple.

2. Martin Luther, John Calvin, and Ulrich Zwingli were the

three leaders of the Continental Reformation. Grouped around these three central figures stood a little band of brave spirits, foremost among whom were Philip Melancthon, the friend of Luther, and James Lefevre and William Farel, the associates of Calvin.

3. **Luther's early Life.**—Luther, the son of a miner, was born at Eisleben in Saxony in November 1483. While at school in Eisenach he used to sing in the streets for bread, — a custom which was common among the German students. After spending four years at the University of Erfurt, he took his degree: he was then twenty-two.



MARTIN LUTHER.

4. **Monastic Life:**  
1505–1508 A.D.—

Toward the close of his college life, which was free and

jovial, three events stirred his mind powerfully:—he found in the library a Latin Bible; a dear friend died; and he himself fell sick nigh unto death. Calling his fellow-students around him one night, he entertained them at a merry supper; and scarcely had they left his lodging, when he stood knocking at the door of the Augustine convent with two books in his hand—a Vergil and a Plautus. He spent three years within the cloisters of Erfurt, in terrible mental struggles, and in vain attempts to gain peace by fastings and penances. At length Staupitz, the vicar-general of the order, who was at Erfurt on

a visit of inspection, directed him to the Bible and the works of St. Augustine. Then Luther began to see light. His troubled spirit found joy and calm in the doctrine of justification by faith alone, of which he laid firm hold.



THE LAND OF LUTHER.

**5. Professor at Wittenberg: 1508 A.D.**—In 1508, Luther was appointed Professor of Philosophy in the University of Wittenberg. There he won renown as a bold and original preacher. The little wooden chapel of the convent could not hold his audience. The great idea of the Reformation was now taking full possession of his soul. So strong was its influence, that when he went to Rome in 1512 on a certain mission, and tried to climb Pilate's staircase on his knees as an act of penance, his conscience never ceased to thunder in his soul, "The just shall live by faith." On his return to Wittenberg, he was made Doctor of Divinity. So far, his career, as here traced in outline, was simply a course of preparation for his great work.



**6. The Sale of Indulgences.**—Leo X., in want of money to build St. Peter's at Rome, authorized the sale of indulgences. John Tetzel, a Dominican monk, arrived within a few miles of Wittenberg with a bundle of these papers, and the simple country-folk of Saxony crowded round his counter to buy. With fearless impudence, he shouted all day long the wonderful powers of the indulgence. "Drop a penny in my box for some friend in purgatory," said he, "and the moment it clinks on the bottom, the freed soul flies up to heaven." Luther heard of these things, and saw their effect on some of his own flock, who, believing themselves pardoned by the indulgences they had bought, refused to submit to his direction. He felt that the time had come for the first blow in a momentous struggle. Of Tetzel he was by no means afraid. "God willing," said he, "I will beat a hole in his drum."

**7. The Theses against Indulgences: 1517 A.D.**—Then, stating his belief on the subject of the indulgences in the form of ninety-five theses or propositions, he sent a copy of them to the Archbishop of Magdeburg; and, on the same day, he nailed another copy, signed with his name, on the gate of the castle church of Wittenberg. In these theses Luther maintained that, unless there was real contrition on the part of a sinner, there could be no pardon of sin. The indulgence, he said, rested on the doctrine of self-expiation, which was a heathen doctrine: the doctrine of the Bible was pardon through the expiation of Christ. This public defiance was the starting-point of the Reformation. The news ran with lightning-speed through Germany, and through Europe.

**8. The Pope and Luther.**—Tetzel, retiring to Frankfort on the Oder, issued a list of counter theses, maintaining the infallibility and the supreme authority of the Pope. These were burned by the students of Wittenberg, who entered heart and soul into the cause of their professor. Pope Leo heard a murmur in Germany, but treated it lightly, as a monkish quarrel. "This Luther," said he, "is a man of genius; he writes well." Cardinal Cajetan, the papal legate, a smooth and subtle Italian, was foiled in an attempt to make Luther retract at a conference

held at Augsburg. Miltitz, a German, who was chamberlain to the Pope, had apparently better success, having enticed Luther into a conditional promise to keep silence on the disputed points.

**9. The Disputation at Leipsic: 1519 A.D.**—Then came the disputation of Leipsic, which proved that Luther had not merely drawn the sword, but had flung away the scabbard. It took place in a hall of the palace of Duke George, cousin of his friend the Elector Frederic. All the noblest, wisest, and most learned men in Germany were present. Luther entered into the controversy with great cheerfulness, being strong in his conviction of the truth. When he mounted the platform he carried a nosegay in his hand. His opponent was Dr. Eck, Professor of Divinity at Ingolstadt, a man noted through all Germany for skill in controversy. Eck insisted on the authority of the Church. Taking his stand on the text, "Thou art Peter, and upon this rock I will build my Church," he maintained the supremacy of the Pope. Luther, on the other hand, applying the word "rock" to Christ, contended that He was the sole and absolute Head of the Church; and that the Scriptures were the only grounds of authority in religion. So the fencing went on for days; and they parted, each claiming the victory.

**10.** During the following summer, Luther published a few pages of an address to the Christian nobles of Germany, in which, with that strong, blunt speech that he was noted for, he characterized the seat of the Papacy as a "devil's nest." His work "On the Babylonish Captivity of the Church" followed in autumn.

**11. Burning of the Papal Bull: 1520 A.D.**—At length the thunder of Rome broke forth. A bull was published, declaring Luther to be a heretic, ordering his writings to be burned, and summoning him to Rome within sixty days. The crisis had come, and bravely the monk of Saxony met it. One winter day, having gathered the students and townsfolk of Wittenberg at the Elster Gate, he cast the papal bull, a document once so potent and terrible, into the flames of a fire of wood.

**12. The Diet of Worms: 1521 A.D.**—A few months later, he

set out for Worms, where the young Emperor Charles V. was holding his first Diet of the German States. Greatly had the soul of Luther rejoiced when he received a summons to plead his cause in so proud a presence. He journeyed slowly, crowds thronging around his coach, and joyous music welcoming him at every stage. Friendly warnings met him; a heavy sickness seized him on the way; yet still he pressed on undaunted. When the roofs and spires of Worms rose in view, standing up in his carriage, he sang the famous hymn, *Ein Feste Burg ist unser Gott* ("A Strong Tower is our God"), which has ever since borne his name. That night till very late his inn was thronged with nobles and scholars. But when all were gone, alone upon his knees, he sobbed out a broken prayer, casting himself at this hour of great need entirely on the help of God.

13. Next day, toward evening, he came before the emperor, who sat enthroned among his splendid courtiers. It was a striking contrast—a pale monk against a brilliant court. Eck rose to ask him if he would retract his works. Luther required a day to prepare his reply; and next day he closed a two hours' speech in German and in Latin thus: "Unless I be convinced by Scripture, I neither can nor dare retract anything; it is neither safe nor right to go against conscience. Here I take my stand; I can do no otherwise. So help me God." He was then dismissed from Worms, the emperor having declared his resolve to treat him as a heretic. Luther's own epitome, in a letter to a friend, of the proceedings of these three momentous days is a gem of condensation: "Are the books yours?"—"Yes." "Will you revoke, or not?"—"No." "Get you gone then."

14. **In Wartburg Castle: 1521-22 A.D.**—On his way home, he was seized by a band of armed men in masks, and was carried to the Castle of Wartburg up among the mountains. This is said to have been done by his friend the Elector of Saxony, to keep him out of harm's way. There he lived for about a year, disguised as a knight, rambling, hunting, and writing. During this retirement, he began his great work, the translation of the Bible into German. Before he left Wartburg he had finished

the New Testament; but the entire work was not completed until 1534.

15. The news that his former friend Carlstadt and other extreme Reformers were carrying things with a high hand at Wittenberg,—smashing images, and seeking to banish from the University all books but the Bible,—called Luther down from the mountains. Then came a controversy with Carlstadt, who was forced to flee from Saxony to Switzerland. A quarrel between Luther and Erasmus occurred about the same time.

16. **Luther's Marriage:** 1524 A.D.—In 1524 Luther threw off his monk's dress, and in the following year he married Catherine von Bora, an escaped nun. About the same time the Peasants' War, excited by the Anabaptists under Münzer, arose in the Black Forest, and raged throughout the Rhine provinces, ending in the slaughter of fifty thousand people. Luther, whose enemies blamed him for



THE WARTBURG.

this outbreak, took the rashness of the misguided peasants deeply to heart, and inveighed bitterly against their mad actions.

17. **Ulrich Zwingli.**—In 1529 the Landgrave of Hesse, desirous of a union between the Reformers of Germany and those of Switzerland, invited Luther and Zwingli to meet at Marburg. Zwingli was a Swiss farmer's son—born in 1484. He had seen service early in life, as chaplain to the Swiss troops in Italy. After he was settled as a preacher at home, the sale of indulgences excited his anger, as it had excited Luther's. At Zurich, somewhat later, he preached reform more boldly still, and won for that canton the honour of being the first to embrace the pure doctrines of Protestantism.

18. When the Swiss and the Saxon met at Marburg, they differed on the subject of the Lord's Supper. Two years later in a war between the Reformed and the Romish cantons, Zwingli whose warlike spirit led him to join the ranks of the Zurichers, was killed in the battle of Cappel.

19. **The Diet of Speyer: 1529 A.D.**—A diet was held at Speyer in the spring of 1529; partly to raise forces for a war with the Turks, who had interfered in a contest for the crown of Hungary; and partly to settle, if possible, the religious differences of the nation. The Romish party having drawn up a decree in favour of their creed, the Lutherans gave in their famous "Protest," from which they were thenceforth called Protestants. The names of the Elector of Saxony, the Margrave of Brandenburg, the Landgrave of Hesse, the Duke of Lüneburg, the Prince of Anhalt, and the deputies of fourteen cities, were subscribed to this document.

20. **The Augsburg Confession: 1530 A.D.**—Next year a great assembly of princes met at Augsburg. Luther was not there, but Melancthon was; and to this gentle friend of the brave Reformer fell the task of reading the celebrated Confession of the Protestant Faith. The document was written by Melancthon, but much of the matter was Luther's. Although this Confession was condemned by the Diet of Augsburg, the determined attitude of the Protestants made the decision of little use. The

emperor wavered, being unwilling to estrange so powerful a section of the German nation.

**21. The League of Smalkalde: 1530 A.D.**—The league of Protestant princes and free cities at Smalkalde gave new strength to the cause of the Reformers; and the emperor, whose object then was to lead all Germany into the field against the Turks, annulled the proceedings of the Diets held at Worms and Augsburg (1532). This victory of Protestantism marks, for the time at least, the close of the struggle.

**22. Death of Luther: 1546 A.D.**—Luther lived until 1546, writing and teaching at Wittenberg. Every year saw the doctrines, for which he had so stoutly contended, spreading more widely. There was much to vex him in the perils which still beset the cause, and in the follies of some of his friends; but within his little home there was peace. He died, after a short illness, at Eisleben, his native town, which he had visited in order to reconcile two noble friends who had quarrelled. As he himself said, "The world is weary of me; and I of the world." His work was done: he lay down to sleep. He was a blunt, affectionate, jovial man, free-spoken sometimes, but always speaking to the point. His tender love of his Kate and his children, and his noble trust in God, endear to our hearts this first and greatest of the Reformers.

**23. John Calvin.**—No sketch of the Reformation would be complete without a notice of John Calvin (Jean Cauvin). Born in 1509, at Noyon in Picardy, he received his education chiefly in the schools of Paris, and afterwards attended law-classes at Orleans and Bourges. The study of the Bible and the conversation of two friends first opened his mind to the truths of the Reformed faith, while he was a student at Orleans. Before his return to Paris in 1532, he had become a decided convert to that faith. Thenceforth, to teach religion became his great desire. After many vain efforts to teach the Reformed doctrines peacefully in France, we find him an exile at Basel. There, in 1535, he published the first outline of his great work, "The Institutes of the Christian Religion," which was undoubtedly the book of the Reformation. After a stay of some time in

Italy, and a short visit to France, he settled in Geneva in the summer of 1536.

24. Here he became teacher and preacher of theology ; and in conjunction with William Farel framed a Confession of Faith for the citizens, who were, however, scarcely yet prepared for the strict and, as some thought, over-rigid discipline which he sought to establish. A hostile party accordingly arose, known as the Libertines, whose influence grew strong enough to banish Calvin and Farel from the city.

25. Calvin found refuge in Strassburg, where he spent three quiet years in literary and pastoral labour. His strong interest in the Genevans was shown by two remarkable letters, written from Strassburg, to strengthen them in the Protestant faith. The completion of the "Institutes" in 1539, too, marks this green resting-place in a troubled life. Late in 1540, he received a letter from the Council of Geneva, entreating him to return ; and in the autumn of the following year he obeyed the call. One of his first acts was to lay down a code of laws, regulating, not the Church only, but the minutest details of every-day life.

26. **Calvin and Servetus.**—The rest of Calvin's busy life was spent in this city, which became a great centre of the Reformation. Controversy filled up his days, for enemies were thick around him. After a long struggle, he expelled the Libertines from the city. By many he is supposed to have given his sanction to the burning of the Spaniard Servetus, who denied the doctrine of the Trinity ; a circumstance which, if true, shows how apt the best of men are to be intolerant of opposition, and to persecute their rivals.

27. **Death of Calvin.**—After much suffering from gout and other diseases, this great man died, one evening in May, just as the sun was setting. His frame was meagre, and rather low-sized : his sallow face told of hard study and rigorous self-denial. He stands out among a noble army as the great lawgiver and organizer of the Reformed Church,—the "impersonation of the spirit of order in the surging movement of the sixteenth century."

## NOTES.

§ 2. **Melancthon.** This is a translation into Greek of his German name, *Schwartz-erd*, "black earth."

**Farel**, William, born at Gap in Dauphny, 1489. He laboured chiefly in Switzerland, and was expelled with Calvin from Geneva in 1538; died 1565.

4. **Plautus**, a Roman comic poet, born about 254 B.C. His "Comedies" are founded on Greek originals. Died 184 B.C. For Vergil, see page 60.

11. **Elster Gate.** The Elster is a tributary of the Elbe, and Wittenberg is below their junction.

12. **Diet of the German States**, the meeting of the princes who formed the Confederation of the German Empire. The Diet was so called because its sittings were continued from day to day. (Latin *dies*, a day.) The last Diet met at Frankfort-on-the-Main in 1866. The Parliament of the new German Empire meets at Berlin.

15. **Carlstadt.** His real name was Andreas Bodenstein; born at Carlstadt in Austria about 1483. He became professor of theology at Basel. Died 1541.

16. **The Peasants' War.** This war had its origin in the grievances which the German peasantry suffered from the oppression of the nobility, and from the vicious conduct of the clergy.

24. **Libertines**, a fanatical sect that arose about 1525. They held that whatever was done by man was done by the Spirit of God.

26. **Servetus**, Michael, born in Aragon, 1509.

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**SUMMARY.**—1505–1508. Martin Luther was a monk in a convent at Erfurt.—1508. He became professor of philosophy at Wittenberg.—1517. He published his ninety-five theses against indulgences.—1519. He disputed with Dr. Eck at Leipsic about the headship of the Church.—1520. He burned a papal bull, which had declared him to be a heretic. At the Diet of Worms, he refused to retract his works. In Wartburg Castle he began a translation of the Bible into German.—1529. He met the Swiss Reformer, Zwingli, at Marburg.—1529. The "Protest" of the Lutherans at the Diet of Speyer gave rise to the name Protestants, by which they were afterwards known.—1530. At the Diet of Augsburg, the Confession of the Protestant Faith was read by Melancthon.—1530. A Protestant League was formed at Smalkalde.—1546. Luther died at Eisleben. John Calvin was a teacher of theology in Geneva; he did much to promote the progress of the Reformed doctrines.

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## POPES OF THE SIXTEENTH CENTURY.

<b>Alexander VI.</b> .....	A.D. 1492–1503	<b>Paul IV.</b> .....	A.D. 1555
<b>Pius III.</b> .....	1503	<b>Pius IV.</b> .....	1559
<b>Julius II.</b> .....	1503	<b>Pius V.</b> .....	1566
<b>Leo X.</b> .....	1513	<b>Gregory XIII.</b> .....	1572
<b>Adrian VI.</b> .....	1522	<b>Sixtus V.</b> .....	1585
<b>Clement VII.</b> .....	1523	<b>Urban VII.</b> .....	1590
<b>Paul III.</b> .....	1534	<b>Gregory XIV.</b> .....	1590
<b>Julius III.</b> .....	1550	<b>Innocent IX.</b> .....	1591
<b>Marcellus II.</b> .....	1555	<b>Clement VIII.</b> .....	1592–1605

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## CHAPTER II.

*THE EMPEROR CHARLES V.*

**Central Point : Battle of Pavia—1525 A.D.**

**English History : Reign of Henry VIII.—1509–1547 A.D.**

**Scottish History : Reign of James V.—1513–1542 A.D.**

1. **Early Life of Charles.**—Charles, the son of Philip the Handsome, Archduke of Austria, and the grandson of the Emperor Maximilian, was born at Ghent early in 1500. His mother was Joanna, surnamed the Insane, the daughter of Ferdinand and Isabella of Spain. His early life was spent in the Netherlands, where Adrian of Utrecht acted as his tutor. But the tastes of the young prince led him rather to warlike exercises than to books. History and politics were made the groundwork of his education. At the age of fifteen he assumed the government of Flanders, which came to him through his grandmother, Mary of Burgundy, heiress of Philip the Bold, and wife of Maximilian.

2. **Charles King of Spain : 1516 A.D.**—The death of Ferdinand, in 1516, placed on his head the brilliant crown of Spain, which he held jointly with his mother Joanna. The celebrated Cardinal Ximenes, long the faithful minister of the late king, ruled as regent, until Charles arrived in Spain. His Flemish friends, in their jealousy of the Spaniards, delayed his departure as long as possible and kept him among them for more than a twelve-month. In Asturias, a splendid throng of Spanish nobles welcomed their new king. Ximenes, kept back by illness, wrote to the young monarch, advising him to dismiss all strangers from his train, if he would not mortally offend the haughty grandees. The sensible advice was rejected, and the old cardinal, stabbed by a cold, cruel letter of reply, laid down his gray head to die.

3. **Charles elected Emperor : 1519 A.D.**—While at Barcelona, Charles heard that his grandfather Maximilian was dead. At once a great struggle for the vacant empire began between the

young King of Spain and Francis I. of France. The seven Electors, with whom the choice lay, fearing that the power of such candidates would be dangerous to the liberties of Germany, offered the crown to Frederic, Duke of Saxony. He refused it, on the ground that his hand was too weak to hold the sceptre when the Turks were threatening the eastern border, and advised that Charles, a German by blood and by tongue, should be elected. This was done, and Charles I., whose dominions now embraced Austria, the Netherlands, Naples, and Spain, with all its golden possessions beyond the Atlantic, became Charles V., Emperor of Germany.



DOMINIONS OF CHARLES V.

4. In the following year, he was crowned with the diadem of Charles the Great at Aix-la-Chapelle. In sketching the story of his reign, his share in the great scenes of the Reformation need not be touched on, since they have been noticed in the previous chapter.

5. **Rebellion in Spain.**—The appointment of Adrian of Utrecht to be Regent of Spain, and other acts of the same kind, kindled a rebellion in the Peninsula. A "Holy Junta," or association of deputies, was formed; and Joanna, then enjoying a lucid interval, was entreated to take the government into her hands.

She graciously consented ; but when the glimpse of reason had passed away, she could not be got to sign a paper. War began. The troops of the Junta, successful at first, were in the end defeated. They lost the favour of the nobles and the clergy. The arrival of Charles, who soon won the hearts of the alarmed Spaniards by granting a free pardon to all except some twenty of the ringleaders, calmed the tumult ; and the removal to Italy of Adrian, who had just been made Pope, helped to re-establish peace in Spain. The brief struggle ended in making Charles an absolute monarch, and in reducing the Cortes or Parliament of Spain to a position of impotence.

**6. First War with Francis of France: 1521-26 A.D.**—The grand struggle of the time was between Charles and his brilliant rival, Francis of France. Italy, so often the battle-field of Europe, was the theatre of the war. There, in 1515, Francis had, by a rapid dash over the Alps, made himself master of Milan and Lombardy. But nine years later, in one short season, he lost every fragment of his Italian conquests. The brave and fearless Chevalier Bayard fell during the retreat from Italy. Then was fought the great battle of Pavia, in which the generals of Charles shattered the French power in Italy beyond repair. King Francis, fighting in the front like a gallant young soldier, received many wounds, and had his horse killed under him ; but the desertion of his Swiss troops, and an attack on his rear scattered his brave battalions. He was taken prisoner, and ten thousand of the noblest of his soldiers lay dead on the field. "Madame," wrote he to his mother, Louisa of Savoy, "all is lost but honour." After lying in prison at Madrid for nearly a year, Francis regained his freedom by a treaty, in which he agreed to give up to Charles the Duchy of Burgundy, to renounce all his pretensions to Italy, and to give as hostages his eldest and second sons. Between France and Spain, on the waters of a frontier river, the father and the sons met ;—they, bound for a Spanish prison ; he, for the free French shore. Landing, he sprang on his Turkish steed, and dashed off for Bayonne with the joyous words, "I am yet a king !" The promise about Burgundy was never fulfilled, Francis declaring that the treaty

had been wrung from him by force ; and the war was at once renewed.

7. **Second War with Francis : 1527-29 A.D.**—A league was now formed against the emperor for the purpose of releasing the sons of Francis. It included Francis, Venice, and the Pope, on whom the heavy hand of Charles soon fell. Bourbon, once High Constable of France, but driven thence by the malice of the king's mother, led to Rome the imperial troops, mutinous for want of pay. Rushing on the city in the mist of morning, they scaled the walls ; and nothing daunted by their leader's death, who was struck down from a ladder by a musket ball, they fought their way into the city. A fearful scene of plunder and debauchery ensued. Pope Clement, who had shut himself up in the Castle of St. Angelo, was soon starved into a surrender. Charles tried to calm the indignation which this act aroused by pretending deep sorrow for the imprisonment of the Pope. His court went into mourning, and prayers were offered up for " His Holiness " in the churches of Madrid.

8. **Treaty of Cambray (Ladies' Peace) : 1529 A.D.**—Francis I. and Henry VIII. of England then united against the emperor (1525). The French army entered Italy. The fiery Francis challenged his rival to fight a duel, and Charles agreed ; but after some hard names had been bandied between the monarchs, the matter dropped. Misfortunes then fell thick on Francis. In quick succession there followed the ruin of a French army before Naples by hunger and disease, and the loss of Genoa. The interference of the Turks in Hungary and the ferment of the Reformation in Germany induced Charles to wish for peace. Two old ladies—the emperor's aunt and the king's mother—met quietly in the little border town of Cambray to talk over the matter. There a treaty (known as *Paix des Dames*, "the Ladies' Peace") was agreed to, in terms of which Francis was to pay Charles two million crowns, to resign Flanders and Artois, to give up all thoughts of Italy, and to marry the Emperor's sister Eleanor, Queen-dowager of Portugal ; while Charles was to set free the French princes, and to say no more in the meantime about the promised Burgundy. .

9. In the following year, at Bologna, Charles was crowned Emperor and King of Lombardy by the Pope, Clement VII, whom he had so hardly used.

10. **Anabaptist War: 1533-35 A.D.**—The war of the German peasants, excited by the Anabaptist Münzer, has been already noticed. The doings of this sect assumed a more alarming phase, when, in 1533, Matthias, a baker, and Boccold, a tailor, seizing the Westphalian city of Munster, and changing its name to Mount Zion, set up a commonwealth, of which polygamy was the most notable feature. Upon the death of Matthias, Boccold assumed the title of king. But after a long blockade Munster was taken; and the tailor king, having been carried in chains through the cities of Germany, was put to death with lingering tortures in the place where he had held his guilty court.

11. **The Capture of Tunis: 1535 A.D.**—Twice Charles led great expeditions to the coast of Africa: one a brilliant success in 1535, the other a wretched failure in 1541. All the harbours of Barbary swarmed with Mahometan pirates, of whom the chief was the daring Barbarossa. Sultan Solyman, flattered by the submission of this wily corsair, had given him the command of the Ottoman fleet; and Barbarossa, thus strengthened, had seized the kingdom of Tunis. To dislodge him, and thus cripple the Turkish power by sea, was the object of the first expedition of Charles. The great fort of Goletta, bristling with three hundred cannon, was carried with a rush by the troops of the emperor. When the defenders of Tunis were driven back into the city in headlong rout, ten thousand Christian slaves, who had knocked off their irons, turned the guns of the citadel on the pirates. Barbarossa fled in dismay; the imperial troops, eager for plunder, burst into the streets, and Tunis was filled with riot and blood. Then, having restored the exiled king to his throne, Charles re-crossed the sea.

12. **Third War with Francis I: 1536-38 A.D.**—At once the French war was reopened, Francis having renewed his claims on the Duchy of Milan. Savoy was overrun by French soldiers, but was speedily lost. Charles then invaded Provence with fifty thousand men. But Montmorency stood firm in his

camp at Avignon ; Marseilles and Arles were besieged in vain ; and after two inglorious months the emperor re-entered Italy a baffled man. Through the mediation of Pope Paul III., a truce for ten years was concluded at Nice in 1538.

13. Next year, we find Charles trusting so far to his rival's honour as to seek permission to travel from Spain to the Netherlands through France, that he might punish the revolted citizens of Ghent. The leave being freely given, he passed safely through the hostile land, and was everywhere splendidly received. The rivals met on friendly terms, and Francis received his old enemy with great distinction. Charles aimed a second blow at Africa late in the autumn of 1541 ; but it was a blow that recoiled on himself ; for storm and sword and hunger and plague drove him back to Europe with but a miserable wreck of his splendid force.

14. **Fourth War with Francis : 1542-44 A.D.**—The outbreak of yet another war between Charles and Francis marks the year 1542. It had its origin in the bestowal of the Duchy of Milan on Charles's son Philip. The worthless truce of 1538 was cast aside. Francis, forming an alliance with Solymán, raised five great armies ; Charles with his ally, Henry of England, gloated over a fancied partition of France which seemed to float in his future. But the defeat of the emperor at Ceresuola, in North Italy, where he lost ten thousand men, quenched these glowing hopes, and the strife was closed by the Peace of Crespy in 1544.

15. **The Council of Trent : 1545 A.D.**—Towards the close of the following year, the nineteenth general council of the Church met at Trent. Convened nominally to settle religious differences by fair discussion, it was yet a packed assembly filled with Italian bishops, whose overwhelming number enabled the Pope to turn the course of debate at his will. The Protestants either refused to enter the council or withdrew from it when they saw how it was constituted. Continuing to sit at intervals during eighteen years, it denounced the doctrines of Luther. Protestants have always denied the authority of the Council of Trent, but the Church of Rome still appeals to its decisions as a great standard

of faith, morals, and discipline. Foremost in all its deliberations were the Jesuits,—a new order of monks founded by Ignatius Loyola, a Spaniard, who had once been a soldier. Along with five others—of whom Francis Xavier was one—he had sworn one starry night, on the top of Montmartre, near Paris, to devote himself to the cause of his tottering Church. Having been formally instituted in 1540, these monks, who, in addition to the three usual vows, took an oath of implicit obedience to superiors, made their first great public appearance at the Council of Trent.

**16. Smalkaldic War: 1546-55 A.D.**—The chief events which marked the remaining years of the Emperor Charles, belong to the history of Germany. Francis I. and Henry VIII. died within a few months of each other (1547); and Charles, thus freed from anxiety about foreign affairs, resolved to make himself master of the States of Germany, and to root out the Reformed faith by force of arms. The leaders of the Smalkaldic League—John Frederic, Elector of Saxony, and Philip, Landgrave of Hesse—were placed under the ban of the empire, and took the field. But they were irresolute and dilatory. They wasted in ill-timed negotiations the days that should have been spent in active operations. There was a traitor in their camp—Duke Maurice of Saxony, a man whose guiding star was self. He made a secret alliance with the emperor, and invaded Saxony. The League of Smalkalde fell to pieces. The Elector of Saxony was defeated and made prisoner at the battle of Mühlberg on the Elbe in 1547, and the Landgrave of Hesse was soon terrified into a surrender. Maurice received as the price of his infamy the electorate of Saxony.

17. Great seemed the glory of Charles now,—the sword of Francis rusting in the grave, the tongue and pen of Luther stilled for ever, the great league of Protestantism broken into fragments, and its two boldest champions chained at his feet.

**18. Religious Peace of Augsburg: 1555 A.D.**—Maurice, meanwhile, had been growing tired of the emperor's service. His father-in-law, the Landgrave of Hesse, was still a prisoner, in spite of his pleading. Although a traitor to the Protestant

cause, he had yet a lingering feeling that it was good and true. Managing to keep his plans secret until they were ripe, and taking care to secure the alliance of the French king, Henry II., he appeared suddenly at the head of twenty-five thousand men, and issued a manifesto setting forth his reasons for appearing in arms against the emperor. These were three;—to secure the Protestant religion, to maintain the German constitution, and to deliver the Landgrave of Hesse from prison. Sweeping rapidly through Upper Germany, he moved on Innspruck, where Charles lay, ill of the gout; and so quick was his approach, that the emperor, gaining only a few hours' start, was obliged to flee over the Alps, carried by torch-light in a litter through a dark and rainy night. Hostilities ensued; but Charles was forced to conclude a convention at Passau (1552), by which he granted religious freedom to the Protestants till the next Diet. Maurice died in the following year. The Diet met at Augsburg in 1555 and passed the solemn declaration known as the Religious Peace, which allowed any State to adopt the Protestant religion, but gave no protection or privilege to Protestants in Catholic States.

19. **War with Henry II. of France: 1552-56 A.D.**—The alliance of Maurice of Saxony with Henry II. led Charles into a war with France, which outlasted the contest in Germany. In 1552, Henry seized three imperial bishoprics on his eastern frontier—Metz, Toul, and Verdun. Charles laid siege to Metz, but was repulsed by Francis, Duke of Guise, of the House of Lorraine. The war lasted till 1556, and ended in France retaining the place she had occupied. Metz remained in the hands of France from this time till 1871.

20. **Abdication of Charles: 1556 A.D.**—At the age of fifty-six Charles resigned the sceptre of Spain and the Low Countries to his son Philip, and his German and Austrian lands, with the imperial dignity, to his brother Ferdinand I. Addressing the assembled States of his native land at Brussels, he recounted what he had done in fulfilment of his public duty, pleaded broken health as the cause of his resignation, and touchingly sought the pardon of those whom he had neglected or injured.



Sailing from the Netherlands to Spain, he soon hid his weary head within the monastery of St. Just, in Estremadura; and there amid dark woods of oak and chestnut, and under the shadow of a great mountain chain, he spent two quiet years, devoting much time to religious exercises, still taking an interest in public matters, but quite content to listen to the hum of the restless world as to the roar of a far-off sea.

**21. His Death: 1558 A.D.**—In the summer of 1558 he took the strange notion of having his own funeral rites performed. The chapel was hung with black; dim wax lights burned all around; a huge scaffolding, draped with black, was reared in the centre; and round it stood the mourners, Charles himself bearing a taper in the sombre ring. As the wailing chant arose, a strange chill struck through his blood, and a few hours later he was laid in a raging fever on the bed from which he never rose again. The gout, racking him for years, had so wasted his strength that three weeks later he breathed his last (21st September 1558).

**22. His Character.**—As a monarch and a statesman, Charles V. possessed shining qualities. Few could so skilfully have guided the ever-tangling threads of politics in three great realms. Amid discontented Spaniards, surly Flemings, and intriguing Italians, with French cannon ever thundering in the west, and Turkish sabres gleaming along his eastern frontier, with all Germany agitated by a question that stirred the heart to its depths, he yet held his power unbroken, reading the men around him at a glance, and shaping out his own course with a rapid and dauntless decision. The secret of his success lay chiefly in his untiring industry. His great faults were those of an ambitious man. The haunting fear of his life was, that, like his mother, he should die mad: that, however, he was mercifully spared.

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#### NOTES.

§ 2. **Ximenes, Francisco**, born 1487. In 1482 he entered the Franciscan order; became Archbishop of Toledo in 1495; Regent of Spain in 1506.

5. **Junta**, an association or committee of persons formed for any political or civil purpose.

6. **Chevalier Bayard**, born near Grenoble in 1476. He was a pattern of virtuous excellence, and his death was mourned by enemies as well as by friends.

15. **The Jesuits**, or members of the Society of Jesus. They were expelled from Italy in 1573; and from France, by the revival and execution of disused decrees, in 1580. The reason, in the case of France, was that they taught in their schools sedition against the Republic.

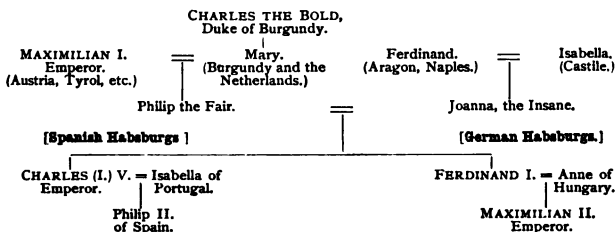
**Xavier**, Francis, born in Spain, 1506; studied at Paris, where he met Loyola. In 1540 he undertook a mission to India. Died in an island off the Chinese coast, 1552.

**SUMMARY.**—1516. Charles, son of the Archduke of Austria, succeeded Ferdinand on the Spanish throne.—1519. He became Emperor of Germany.—1521-1526. A war was carried on between Charles and Francis I. of France.—1525. A great battle was fought at Pavia. Francis was taken prisoner, but was afterwards released.—1527-1529. A league, including Francis, Venice, and the Pope, was formed against Charles. The Pope was imprisoned in the Castle of St. Angelo.—1529. The Treaty of Cambray was framed.—1533-1535. An Anabaptist commonwealth was erected in Munster by Matthias and Boccold; the latter afterwards assumed the title of king, but he was taken and put to death.—1535. Tunis was delivered by Charles from the pirate Barbarossa, and the exiled king was restored.—1536-1538. A third war with Francis took place; it was ended by a truce at Nice.—1542-1544. In a fourth war with Francis, the emperor was defeated at Ceresuola; the Peace of Crespy closed the war.—1545. A famous General Church Council met at Trent; it denounced the doctrines of Luther.—1546-1555. In the Smalkaldic war, Maurice Duke of Saxony made a secret alliance with the emperor, and defeated the Elector of Saxony.—1555. The Religious Peace of Augsburg was passed, giving freedom to Protestants.—1556. Charles abdicated.—1558. He died of a raging fever.

### GERMAN EMPERORS OF THE HOUSE OF AUSTRIA.

<b>Albert II.</b> .....A.D. 1438	<b>Ferdinand III.</b> .....A.D. 1637
<b>Interregnum</b> .....1439	<b>Leopold I.</b> .....1658
<b>Frederic IV.</b> .....1440	<b>Joseph I.</b> .....1705
<b>Maximilian I.</b> .....1493	<b>Charles VI.</b> .....1711
<b>Charles V.</b> .....1519	<b>Maria-Theresa</b> .....1740
<b>Ferdinand I.</b> .....1556	<b>Charles VII.</b> .....1742
<b>Maximilian II.</b> .....1564	<b>Francis I.</b> .....1745
<b>Rudolf II.</b> .....1576	<b>Joseph II.</b> .....1765
<b>Matthias</b> .....1612	<b>Leopold II.</b> .....1790
<b>Ferdinand II.</b> .....1619	<b>Francis II.</b> .....1792

### DESCENT OF CHARLES V.



## CHAPTER III.

*THE RISE OF THE DUTCH REPUBLIC.*

**Central Point: The Siege of Leyden—1574 A.D.**

**English History: Reign of Elizabeth—1558-1603 A.D.**

**Scottish History: Reign of Mary—1542-1563; and of James VI—1563-1603 A.D.**

1. **Policy of Philip of Spain.**—When Charles V. retired to the convent of St. Just, his son, Philip II. of Spain, a cold-hearted and bigoted Romanist, the husband of Mary of England, received the Netherlands as a part of his dominions. Throughout the well-tilled fields of that country, where such cities as Brussels the Noble, Ghent the Great, and Antwerp the Rich became strong and prosperous, the doctrines of the Reformation had spread fast. Philip resolved to root out the heresy, as it seemed to him.

2. **Margaret of Parma, Regent: 1559-67 A.D.**—Having in 1559 appointed as regent his half-sister, Margaret of Parma, he attempted to introduce the Inquisition. But the attempt was met with a storm of opposition. The Dutch had heard of the Auto da Fé, and knew how Mexico had been drenched in blood. "We are no stupid Mexicans," said they. "We will maintain our ancient rights." A league of nobles was formed in defence of their liberties. Three hundred nobles, walking two and two to the palace, presented a petition against the Inquisition. "Ah!" said a sneering courtier as he looked upon the procession, "it's a heap of beggars." The name stuck to the faction, who were henceforth called *Les Gueux*—"the beggars." The king's refusal to notice the protest of the nobles led to an insurrection of the lower orders of the people. Monasteries and churches were sacked, images were broken, and fine pictures were destroyed. That was what Philip wanted. He had now a pretext for executing his bloody schemes.

3. **Regency of Alva: 1567-73 A.D.**—The Duke of Alva, whose name is a by-word for bigoted cruelty, marched into the Netherlands with twenty thousand Spanish and some German troops in



THE NETHERLANDS.

the summer of 1567. The shadows of the coming storm fell darkly on the hearts of the Dutch, as the news of Alva's march was whispered about the land. Many fled in fear; most of them to England. The greatest man of all, the central figure of a magnificent drama—William the Silent, Prince of Orange—unable as yet to organize an effective movement of the States against the deceitful king, went into Germany to his brother John. The leading nobles who remained behind—Count Lamoral of Egmont and Count Hoorn—were arrested after three weeks of

pretended mildness on the part of Alva. About nine months later, they were both beheaded in the market-place of Brussels amid the sobs of the despairing citizens. Before this, Margaret of Parma resigned the regency, and Alva took her place.

4. Alva then let loose the full flood of his revengeful bigotry on the Netherlanders. Estates were confiscated, arbitrary taxes were imposed, thousands of lives were sacrificed. But a change came just when it seemed impossible to bear such oppression longer. A band of the Water Beggars, under the Count of Lumay,—who had sworn not to cut his hair until he had revenged his friend Egmont's death,—made a dash by sea on the fortified town of Brille, at the mouth of the Meuse, and took it. Everywhere the Dutch, inspired with new courage, rose and expelled the Spaniards, who could retain their footing only in Middelburg.

5. **Rise of the Dutch Navy.**—During the war that ensued, Frederic, the son of Alva, starved the little garrison of Haarlem into a surrender (1573); and then, enraged at the gallant defence they had made, butchered them without mercy. When the executioners were worn out with their bloody work, he ordered the three hundred citizens that remained to be tied back to back, and to be flung into the sea. A repulse at Alkmaar, and a great defeat sustained at sea, when the Water Beggars, with twenty-four small vessels, beat thirty large Spanish ships, turned the scale completely against Alva. By similar successes, and the capture of richly-laden merchantmen, the Dutch soon found themselves masters of a fleet of one hundred and fifty sail.

6. **Requesens, Regent; Relief of Leyden: 1574 A.D.**—Alva, in his disappointment, begged to be recalled, and Requesens, a milder man, was appointed in his stead. Still the war went on with changing fortune. The Spanish soldiery, who were badly paid, grew mutinous, and were led to the siege of Leyden. A circle of sixty-two forts was drawn around the devoted city. It was a terrible time, and the cause of Protestantism was clouding fast. Famine pinched the brave citizens within the walls; and without, the Dutch soldiers had been scattered. In vain

the Water Beggars, whose broad-brimmed hats bore a half moon, with the motto, "Better Turkish than Popish," chafed on their decks as they cruised along the low shore. All was despair, until William the Silent ordered the dikes to be cut and the sea let in on the Spanish works. It was done accordingly. The foaming billows rushed over the corn-fields. A wind arose, which drove the salt waves into the Spanish trenches, while at the same time it bore the boats of the bold Dutch skippers, piled up with bread and fish, to the walls of the rescued city. Fifteen hundred Spaniards were slain or drowned. The University of Leyden was erected as a memorial of this gallant defence and happy deliverance.

7. The relief of Leyden was a fatal blow to Spanish power in the Netherlands. The States of Holland and Zeeland elected William of Orange as their Stadtholder, and Protestantism of the Calvinistic form was re-established in the land. Much to the grief of William, who tried to repress the spirit of revenge, the Reformers among the lower classes inflicted cruel persecution on the few Romanists that remained.

8. **Pacification of Ghent: 1576 A.D.**—Requesens died suddenly in 1576; and his soldiers, thus left without a leader, and maddened by want of pay, surprised and sacked Antwerp, leaving five thousand citizens dead and five hundred houses in ashes (November 4, 1576). In self-defence, the provinces adopted a treaty—called the Pacification of Ghent—under which they combined, sinking religious differences, to drive the Spaniards out of the country.

9. **Regency of Don John of Austria: 1576-78; and of Parma: 1578-92 A.D.**—Philip's half-brother, Don John of Austria, famous for his great victory over the Turks at Lepanto in 1571, then came to represent the King of Spain. As some of the nobles were jealous of the Prince of Orange, and the liberties of the republic seemed in peril, William, with a self-denial that proved him to be a true patriot, refused to take the head of affairs, and gave place to the Archduke Matthias, who was a German and a Romanist. The war continued between Don John on the one side, and Matthias and Orange on the other.

The leading soldier on the Spanish side was the young Duke of Parma, who became regent on Don John's death in 1578, and who made it his first business to reduce to subjection the southern provinces. The population of these provinces being mainly Roman Catholic, they soon submitted to the authority of Spain. Ultimately a portion of them was absorbed in France, and the remainder formed the modern kingdom of Belgium.

10. **The Union of Utrecht: 1579 A.D.**—There was harmony enough among the northern provinces to enable them to follow the advice of Elizabeth of England, whose heart and whose aid, when she could give it, had been with them through the perilous struggle. That advice was that they should form a league for their common defence. That was done in the famous Union of Utrecht, which laid the foundation of the Dutch Republic. Seven provinces—Gelderland, Holland, Zeeland, Friesland, Utrecht, Overijssel, and Gröningen—agreeing to unite their strength as a single State, chose William of Orange to be their Stadtholder.

11. **Murder of William of Orange: 1584 A.D.**—Philip's rage was terrific when he heard that these lands, poor, indeed, in natural qualities, but rich in the skill and industry of their sturdy inhabitants, had broken loose from his realms. Setting a price of 25,000 ducats on William's head, he promised, moreover, to grant nobility to any one who should murder this leader of the rebel Dutch. The base bribe bought a ready hand. A villain named Balthasar Gerard came to Delft seeking an audience of the Stadtholder. He was courteously received, and was honoured with a rich gift, yet his heart never melted. Drawing a pistol, he fired, and three balls pierced the body of the prince. "O God! have mercy on me, and on this poor nation," were the last words of this great man, whose life, of only fifty-one years, most truly worked out the meaning of his motto, "Calm in the midst of storms." The Spanish war was continued by his son and successor Maurice, who ruled the Dutch Republic until 1625.

12. **Independence of the Republic: 1648 A.D.**—The indepen-

dence of the Seven United Provinces, though really won at the relief of Leyden, and declared by the Union of Utrecht, was not acknowledged by Spain until 1609, when a truce for ten years was made. On the expiry of the truce, the war was resumed in connection with the great Thirty Years' War in Germany. By the Peace of Westphalia (1648) which closed that war, the independence of the republic was recognized both by Spain and by the empire.

**13. Prosperity of the Netherlands.**—The population of the Netherlands soon grew too great, for thither fled numbers of Calvinist refugees, driven from the Belgic provinces, and from France and Germany. So thick was the crowd in some places, that many families lived in boats. But here the native enterprise found a speedy remedy. A wide inland sea was drained; and the wonderful *Water Staat*, or system of canals and dikes, was worked out over all the land. The ships of the Water Beggars, which had done such gallant service in the War of Independence, manned with their hardy crews, were ready for sea on more peaceful errands. Before many years passed, the Dutch flag was flying in every sea, and the merchandise of all the world, from the spices of Java and the tea of China to the cod-fish and whale-oil of North American waters, filled the giant warehouses on the banks of the Y.

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NOTE.

§ 10. *Stadtholder*. The title of Stadtholder, or governor of the provinces, was conferred on William by the States to show that they protested against the rule, not of Philip, but of Alva.

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**SUMMARY.**—1559-67. Margaret of Parma was appointed Regent of the Netherlands by Philip II. During her regency Philip tried to introduce the Inquisition into the land. A league of nobles—called the Beggars—was formed against Philip.—1567-73. The Duke of Alva was then made regent, and he treated the Netherlands with great severity. The Dutch navy proved to be more than a match for Alva. During the regency of Requesens, Leyden was besieged by the Spaniards; the Dutch relieved the city by cutting the dikes and letting the sea rush in on the Spanish works.—1576. A union of provinces against the Spanish power was adopted, called the Pacification of Ghent.—1576-78. Don John of Austria, Philip's half-brother, was regent.—1578-92. The Regent Parma reduced the southern provinces to subjection.—1579. The Union of Utrecht laid the foundation of the Dutch Republic.—1584. William of Orange was basely murdered by a bribed assassin.—1648. The independence of the republic was finally acknowledged by Spain and by the empire.



## RULERS OF HOLLAND.

William of Orange, first Stadtholder .....	A.D. 1579	Netherlands united to French Republic.....	A.D. 1796
Maurice of Orange.....	1584	William Frederic.....	1806
Frederic Henry of Orange .....	1625	Louis Bonaparte King of Holland.....	1806
William II. of Orange .....	1647	Holland again united to France.....	1810
The States suppress the office of Stadtholder .....	1650	William Frederic, Prince of Orange, first King of the Netherlands .....	1815
William III. of Orange.....	1672	William II (second king of Holland alone).....	1840
(States in power again) .....	1702	William III. (third king).....	1849
William IV. (Office of Stadtholder made hereditary.).....	1747		
William V. of Orange.....	1751		

## CHAPTER IV.

*THE HUGUENOTS.*

Central Point: The Massacre of St. Bartholomew—August 24, 1572, A.D.

English History: Reign of Elizabeth—1558-1603 A.D.

Scottish History: Reign of Mary—1542-1568; and of James VI.—1568-1603 A.D.

1. **Francis I. and the Reformers.**—The Reformation in France began in the reign of Francis I., to whom John Calvin dedicated his "Christian Institutes," as a peace-offering. Amid his frequent wars with the Emperor Charles, this knightly monarch did not forget to fight the battle of the Church. He doomed to the stake crowds of Huguenots, as the French Protestants now began to be called.

2. **Henry II. : 1547-59 A.D.**—During the reign of Henry II. (1547-1559) the fires of persecution continued to blaze, his queen, Catherine of Medici, who was destined soon to brand her name on a terrible page of French history, rejoicing in the glare. This king issued an edict to establish the Inquisition in France; and the students of Paris, who used to gather in the faubourg St. Germain, to sing psalms in the still summer twilight, were denounced as guilty of sedition.

3. **The Bourbons and the Guises.**—A political element, now beginning to weave itself into the battle between the creeds,

gave a peculiar bitterness to the strife. The great family of Bourbon, descended from Robert, the sixth son of Louis IX., were the rivals and foes of the princes of Lorraine, who are known as the Guises. We therefore do not wonder to find the leaders of these great factions ranged on opposite sides in the religious contest. Antony of Bourbon, who was King of Navarre through his wife, though afterwards a renegade, became at first a leader of the Protestants. His brother Louis, Prince of Condé, took the same side. Marshalled against them were the Queen; Francis, Duke of Guise; the Cardinal of Lorraine; and the Constable Montmorency. Henry II. died from a wound in the eye accidentally inflicted at a tournament (1559).

4. **Francis II. : 1559–60 A.D.**—Francis II., the husband of Mary Queen of Scots, then became king. He was a weak youth, and he fell so completely into the hands of the Guises, who were the uncles of his wife, that a conspiracy was formed by Condé and others (at Amboise) to crush the haughty clique. But the attempt was drowned in blood, the Prince of Condé narrowly escaping the vengeance of the Guises. The death of young Francis in 1560 left the throne to his brother Charles IX.

5. **Charles IX.—Massacre of Vassy : 1562 A.D.**—The Queen-mother then became the ruling spirit of France, for she had unbounded influence over the mind of Charles, who was a boy of only ten. Every day grew darker for the Huguenots. Guise, Montmorency, and Saint André, three leading nobles of France, formed a triumvirate to root out the so-called heresy. Hope, indeed, seemed to brighten, when the edict of July 1561, freeing the Huguenots from the punishment of death, was followed by the edict of January 1562, giving them leave to meet unarmed for worship outside of the towns. But the murmurs of the Romish party grew deep; and a massacre of Huguenots at Vassy by the followers of Guise, acted as the first taste of blood to the tiger. A host of butchers was let loose on the unhappy Protestants. The Loire and the Seine, the Garonne and the Somme ran red with Huguenot blood.

6. War then broke out. The Prince of Condé headed the Huguenots; and not less distinguished in the cause of truth and

freedom was Gaspard Chatillon, better known as Admiral Coligny, a nephew of Montmorency. Condé seized Orleans, which became the head-quarters of his party, and from this centre the Huguenot influence spread far and wide. Elizabeth of England, receiving Havre as a gift, sent them six thousand troops, while the alliance of Spain gave weight to their Romish foes.

**7. Battle of Dreux: 1562 A.D.**—The first great battle was fought at Dreux, forty-five miles from Paris. For seven hours the strife raged; and just as the capture of the Constable Montmorency seemed to make the victory of the Protestants sure, up came the fresh troops of Guise, beat back the exulting Huguenots, and took Condé prisoner.

**8. Death of Guise, Montmorency, and Condé.**—The defeat of the Protestants at Dreux was only the first in a series of similar repulses, suffered during the eight following years. Yet the cause lived. For every champion who bled on the battle-field, or expired amid blazing fagots, tens and hundreds arose with swords as sharp and hearts as truly brave. In the course of these years, Guise was assassinated, and Montmorency and Condé were slain in battle. A new generation of leaders arose to fill the vacant places;—Henry, the young Duke of Guise, on the side of the Romanists; Henry, the young King of Navarre, a boy of sixteen, and Henry, the young Prince of Condé, on that of the Huguenots.

**9. Peace of St. Germain: 1570 A.D.**—After a winter spent in the south, Coligny collected a new army and was marching on Paris, when a peace was concluded at St. Germain, in terms most favourable to the Huguenots. They were to be pardoned for taking up arms; their forfeited property was to be restored; they were declared eligible to most public offices; and they were to hold four towns, of which Rochelle was one, for two years, as security for the fulfilment of the treaty.

**10. The Navarre-Valois Marriage.**—But already dark shadows had begun to fall on the path of the French Protestants. Five years before, Catherine of Medici had met the infamous Duke of Alva at Bayonne, and such a meeting boded no good

to the cause of the Reformation, either in Flanders or in France. The terms of the treaty of St. Germain were too sweet to be sincere. But the favour of King Charles seemed to go further still ; for, in order to cement the union of the rival parties, he proposed a marriage between the young King of Navarre and his own sister Margaret. "Ah!" said a wary noble of the time, "if the wedding takes place at Paris, the favours will be crimson."

11. Coligny, Condé, and the leading Huguenots, went to Paris to the wedding, which took place on the 18th of August 1572. Four days later, as the admiral was walking slowly from the Louvre to his house, reading some papers, he was fired at from a window by a man known as the "king's assassin." A ball struck each arm. The king, though secretly enraged that the murderer had failed in his object, paid Coligny a visit of pretended friendship.

12. **St. Bartholomew's Day: 1572 A.D.**—Meanwhile a horrible plot, of which Catherine of Medici was the life and soul, was darkening to its fatal crisis. The irresolute king trembled at the prospect of the crime ; but neither pity nor fear could pierce the granite heart of his mother. At midnight bands of armed men mustered according to orders at the Hôtel de Ville. A church bell rang ; a single pistol-shot was heard ; and the work of blood began. It was then two o'clock on Sunday morning—St. Bartholomew's Day—the 24th of August 1572. The first victim was the gray-haired Coligny, whose lodging was broken into by the retainers of Guise. Guise himself and his uncle Aumale stood in the court-yard below, and when the corpse of the old man was flung from the window, some drops of his blood fell on them. Shots and screams echoed through the streets, into which the defenceless Huguenots fled half-naked ; and by the glare of torches which were placed in the windows, bands of Romanists, wearing a white cross in their hats, butchered without mercy. The Paris mob went mad with the lust of blood. One man, a goldsmith, boasted of having killed four hundred persons with his own hand. The Romish nobles rode about in the summer dawn encouraging the mur-

derers. "Crush the viper blood!" yelled the savage Guise. "Bleed! bleed!" cried Tavannes; "doctors say bleeding is as good in August as in May."

13. During the week of the massacre, ten thousand were slain in Paris alone; and fast as the news reached Rouen, Orleans, Lyons, and other cities, similar tragedies were enacted. Thirty thousand Huguenots perished in the provinces. The King of Navarre and the Prince of Condé escaped only by professing to abandon the Protestant faith. At Rome cannon were fired, and a *Te Deum* was sung in honour of the great event; but to the court of Protestant Elizabeth the news brought fear, and anger, and deepest gloom.

14. **Death of Charles IX. : 1574 A.D.**—Notwithstanding this fearful blow, the Huguenots held out bravely in Rochelle, and after a time gained some important concessions. Only eighteen months after the Massacre of St. Bartholomew, Charles IX. lay dying at the early age of twenty-five. His soul was chilled with unutterable horror, as the pale and bloody spectres of that fearful Sunday morning seemed to crowd around his death-bed. His brother, Henry of Anjou, who had lately been crowned King of Poland, then became King of France; but so strong was the desire of the Polish nobles to keep him among them, that he was obliged to leave his palace by stealth.

15. **Henry III.—The Holy League: 1576 A.D.**—The reign of this weak and profligate prince, under the title of Henry III., is marked by the establishment of the Holy League for the extermination of the Huguenots and the elevation of Guise to the throne. Fear of the League induced the king to place himself at the head of it; but he did what he could—he even granted favours to the Huguenots—to prevent it from becoming too powerful. After the death of the king's brother in 1584, the League resolved to exclude Henry of Navarre from the throne. At the same time, the king withdrew some of the favours he had granted to the Protestants. This led to a renewal of the war. The struggle that followed is called the War of the Three Henrys; for the Leaguers were under Henry of Guise, and the Huguenots under Henry of Navarre, while King Henry formed

a party of his own. Paris having declared for the Guises, the king caused the duke and his brother the cardinal to be assassinated. Then all France arose in flame ; and the king had no resource but to throw himself on the help of the Huguenots. Aided by Navarre, he undertook the siege of Paris ; but at St. Cloud he was stabbed by James Clement, a Dominican monk, who gained admission to the royal quarters. So perished the last king of the princely line of Valois. On the 5th of January in the same year his infamous mother, Catherine of Medici, had already died (1589).

**16. Henry IV. : 1589 A.D.**—Henry, King of Navarre, who had for twenty years been the acknowledged head of the Huguenots, then became King Henry IV. of France at the age of thirty-six. He was the first monarch of the great Bourbon line, under whose rule France was destined to see days so glorious and so disastrous. The death of his mother in 1572 had left him King of Navarre. Two months later, as we have seen, he had married Margaret of Valois, the sister of Charles IX.

**17.** His struggle with the League continued after he ascended the throne. Only half of the kingdom at first acknowledged his sway ; and his rival, the Duke of Mayenne, brother of the murdered Guises, was appointed Lieutenant-General of France by the Parliament of Paris. One party favoured the Cardinal of Bourbon, Henry's uncle, who was a Romanist, and who was hailed as Charles X. In the war of four years which ensued, the chief events were the battle of Arques and the still more celebrated fight of Ivry, both resulting in favour of King Henry. Elizabeth of England aided her royal cousin with men, money, and ammunition.

**18. The Battle of Ivry : 1590 A.D.**—The Battle of Ivry was the crisis of the struggle between the Huguenots and the Leaguers. On a plain near the Eure, forty miles west of Paris, the two armies lay under torrents of rain during the night before the conflict. The king had eight thousand foot and more than two thousand horse ; Mayenne had twelve thousand foot and four thousand horse. The battle began with a cannonade ; but the cavalry did the real work of the contest. Never was the

dashing valour of King Henry more conspicuous than on that eventful day. Before the onset, riding out in front of his men "all in his armour dressed," with stirring words he had bidden them follow the snowy plume with which his helmet was adorned. There was one anxious quarter of an hour, when the dust of a sweeping charge hid this guiding star from the eyes of the Huguenot soldiery ; but when the white plume gleamed out again, and their king, breathless, bloody, and soiled with battle-dust, rode safe out of the *mêlée*, a cheer arose which struck panic into the army of the League. Mayenne fled across the Eure ; and scarcely four thousand of his fine force escaped death or capture.

19. **Henry's Abjuration of Protestantism : 1593.**—Henry then laid siege to Paris ; but the advance of a Spanish force under the Duke of Parma obliged him to abandon the undertaking. Negotiations began between the king and the members of the League, who were gaining no ground in the strife. And then took place that remarkable event which stamps Henry as a worldly-wise politician, rather than as a sincere and earnest man—his abjuration of the Protestant faith. "The perilous leap"—so he himself called it—was taken in 1593, on the advice of his celebrated minister, the Duke of Sully. All the Romanists, except the extreme bigots, were overjoyed ; town after town opened its gates to him ; foe after foe laid down the sword. In his name his ambassador did penance at Rome, and the papal ban was revoked. Then he ruled in peace over all France (1598).

20. **The Edict of Nantes : 1598 A.D.**—Though he had ceased to be a Protestant, he had not ceased to care for the cause. Five years after his abjuration, in the face of an opposing Parliament, he signed the famous Edict of Nantes, which gave freedom to the Protestants, declared them eligible to all offices, and permitted the public exercise of their worship in certain parts of the kingdom. In the following month a treaty was concluded between France and Spain, much to the advantage of the former nation. Thus Henry gained his earnest wish—peace at home and abroad.

21. **Henry's Policy.**—His twelve remaining years were spent in constant efforts to make France a land of plenty. "The poorest peasant in my realm," said he, "shall eat meat every day in the week, and have a fowl for the pot on Sunday." He gave to Sully the task of arranging the money matters of the State, which had fallen into such confusion and decay that only one-fifth of the taxes exacted from the people reached the royal treasury, while four-fifths stuck to the fingers of the robbers intrusted with the collection. By Sully's skill and by the strict economy of the court, where the plain gray cloth of the king's dress and the simple dishes of his table left the nobles no excuse for luxury, debts to the amount of one hundred and thirty-five million pounds were paid off, the king's revenue was increased by four million, and thirty-five million was gathered into the treasury. New and splendid buildings decked the streets of Paris. Churches, bridges, hospitals, forts, and ships grew up everywhere. Schools were endowed, libraries were filled, and men of learning were rewarded.

22. **Murder of Henry: 1610 A.D.**—So reigned Henri Quatre, of all monarchs still the dearest to the French heart, until the dagger of Ravaillac, a mad Jesuit, slew him one day while his carriage was blocked in a narrow street. His son Louis, the eldest of three children by Mary of Medici, his second wife, succeeded him with the title of Louis XIII.

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#### NOTES.

§ 1. **Huguenots.** Probably from a German word *Eidgenossen*, meaning "sworn confederates," and applied to a party in Geneva. Other derivations of this word are from *Hugon's* tower at Tours, where the Protestants often met; and from King *Hugo*, a spectral monarch supposed to haunt the streets of Paris by night, when the Huguenots held their meetings.

2. **Faubourg**, a by-street or suburb. (French, *fauz*, false; and *bourg*, a town or market.) Properly a district outside the privileged boundary of a market town.

4. **Mary Queen of Scots** After the death of Francis II. she married (1) Henry Stewart, Lord Darnley, by whom she had one son, afterwards James VI. of Scotland and I. of England; (2) James Hepburn, Earl of Bothwell.

12. **St. Bartholomew's Day.** This is the festival day held by the Roman Catholics in memory of St. Bartholomew, one of the twelve apostles; supposed to be the same person as Nathanael.

**Tavannes**, Gaspard de, a French marshal, born in 1509. Made governor of Provence. Died 1573.

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**SUMMARY.**—1547-59. Henry II., along with his queen, Catherine of Medici, persecuted the Protestants, or Huguenots, as they were called. He established the Inqui-



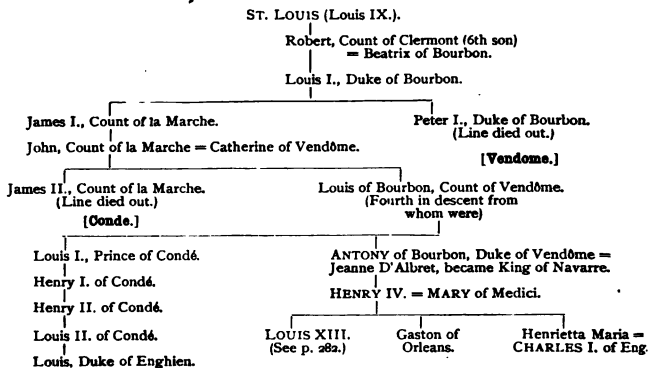
sition in France. A strife arose between the rival families of Bourbon and Guise; the Bourbons took the side of the Protestants.—1562. A massacre of Huguenots took place at Vassy. War then broke out. Condé and Coligny headed the Huguenots.—1562. At the Battle of Dreux, Condé was taken prisoner.—1570. A peace favourable to the Huguenots was concluded at St. Germain. Henry of Navarre, now the Huguenot leader, married the sister of the French King Charles.—1572. On St. Bartholomew's Day a terrible massacre of the Huguenots occurred.—1576 The Holy League, for the extermination of the Protestants, was established.—1589. The King of Navarre became Henry IV. of France.—1590. At Ivry, the Protestants won a victory over the League.—1593. Henry abjured Protestantism.—1598. The Edict of Nantes was issued, favouring the Protestants.—1610. Henry IV. was assassinated by a mad Jesuit.

### FRENCH KINGS OF THE HOUSE OF VALOIS.

Philip VI. (of Valois).....A.D. 1328	Louis XII.....A.D. 1498
John II. (the Good).....1350	Francis I.....1515
Charles V. (the Wise).....1364	Henry II.....1547
Charles VI. (the well-Beloved)...1380	Francis II. (husband of Mary } 1559
Charles VII. (the Victorious).....1422	Stewart). .....
Louis XI.....1461	Charles IX.....1560
Charles VIII. (the Affable).....1483	Henry III. (King of Poland) ..1574-89

### GENEALOGY OF THE BOURBON FAMILY.

#### FIRST TREE.



## CHAPTER V.

*CARDINAL RICHELIEU.*

**Central Point:** The Siege and Capture of La Rochelle—1628 A.D.

**British History:** Reign of James I.—1603-1625; and of Charles I.—1625-1649 A.D.

1. **Regency of Mary of Medici: 1610-17 A.D.**—The wise rule of Henry IV. of France was followed by a period of great confusion. Louis XIII. being only nine years of age, his mother, Mary of Medici, was made Regent; and under her weak government a total change took place. Sully, whose wisdom was set at nought, resigned, and left the court. Concini, an Italian, having gained ascendancy over Mary's mind, guided the affairs of the State. A close alliance was formed with the Pope and the court of Madrid. The nobles, with Condé at their head, rose in arms, enraged at the favour shown to foreigners. All over the land the laws were utterly despised.

2. But Louis was growing up, and in 1614 was declared to be of age. In 1617, Concini was arrested and shot, and soon afterwards his wife was beheaded. The Queen Regent was driven into exile at Blois, where she lived until, two years later, she was released by the rebellious nobles. These steps were taken by the advice of Albert de Luynes, the falconer of young Louis, who, finding means to slip into the dead favourite's place, rose to be Constable of France. This new minion was even more bitterly hated by the nobles than his predecessor had been.

3. **Rise of Richelieu.**—In the midst of this confusion and crime there arose one who, with all his faults, ranks as the first man of his age. Born of noble parents at Paris in 1585, and educated at the College of Navarre, young Armand Jean du Plessis, though at first intended for a soldier, was consecrated Bishop of Luçon, in his elder brother's place, at the early age of twenty-two. Chosen in 1614 to represent the clergy of Poitou in the assembly of the States General, this clever young priest created so great a sensation by a speech which he delivered before the King, that the Queen Regent made him her almoner.

This was the turning-point in his career. Thrown thenceforward into the wild turmoil of court intrigue, he kept a cool head as well as a resolute heart; and he won step after step in the perilous struggle. While the star of Concini was in the ascendant, he was made Secretary of State. In 1622 he wore for the first time the red hat of a cardinal; and, two years later, the influence of Mary of Medici having gained for him a seat in the Council, his eloquence and deep political wisdom raised him to the proud position of first Minister of France. Such was the rise of the great and ruthless Cardinal Richelieu, of whom Montesquieu says: "He made his master the second man in the monarchy of France, but the first in Europe; he degraded the king, but he made the reign illustrious."

4. **His three Aims.**—The writer just quoted gives the essence of the great statesman's policy in a few striking words: "He humbled the Nobility, the Huguenots, and the House of Austria; but he also encouraged literature and the arts, and promoted commerce, which had been ruined by two centuries of civil war. He freed France from a state of anarchy, but he established in its place a pure despotism." The first and the second of Richelieu's great achievements claim our notice now. His successful schemes against the House of Austria will, in the next chapter, appear as part of the story of the Thirty Years' War.

5. **The Nobles humbled.**—Bitterest of Richelieu's political foes were the restless Mary of Medici and her second son, Gaston of Orleans, who could not tamely see their influence over the king's mind swept away by the subtle cardinal. But so it was, and so it continued to be. Their hold on the king was loosened for ever; and, spell-bound by the genius of his minister, though he never really liked him, Louis saw with no regret his mother and his brother Gaston banished from the realm. In vain Gaston, plotting against his foe, called his friends to arms. The Dukes of Guise, Soubise, and Vendôme were forced to flee into exile. Other enemies of the cardinal were thrown into the Bastille, or were put to death. Not without fierce resistance did those terrible blows fall; but the unerring craft of the priestly statesman was too much for the nobles—many, and

rich, and unscrupulously wicked though they were. Plot after plot sprang up ; but the iron hand of the cardinal calmly, yet mercilessly, struck them down. The Parliament too, and the Court of Aids, by which the money-edicts were registered, felt the power of the haughty minister heavily—many of the members being suspended or banished because they refused to carry out his views. Thus Richelieu gained his first grand aim. Perhaps the secret of his success lay in the fact that the French people made no move in aid of the nobles or the Parliament.

**6. Revival of Huguenot Power.**—The second aim of Richelieu's domestic policy was the humiliation of the Huguenots, who under the protecting shadow of the Edict of Nantes were beginning to be formidable once more. The spirit of freedom in religious matters, for which this section of the people had been struggling so bravely for nearly a century, could not but influence their political opinions, and make them dangerous enemies of despotism. Regarding them as obstacles in the way of the establishment of a despotism in France, Richelieu resolved to break their power. With this view he planned the siege of La Rochelle, a sea-port on the western coast, which ever since 1557 had been their great stronghold and asylum.

**7. Buckingham at Rhé.**—The British court, whose councils were then ruled by the Duke of Buckingham, the favourite of Charles I., sent aid to the Huguenots. The duke sailed with a large force to La Rochelle in July 1627 ; but the citizens, shutting their gates, refused to give entrance to these allies. Two islands, Rhé and Oleron, lie out in the sea opposite La Rochelle. Instead of seizing the latter, which would have been an easy capture, Buckingham attacked the former, although it was protected by the fortress of St. Martin. Then followed a series of blunders. He left behind him untaken a small fort which guarded the harbour. He allowed French ships to break through his fleet with food for the garrison on the Isle of Rhé. The assault on St. Martin failed, and the Englishmen had to fight their way to the ships through a French army. Half of the English troops were lost in this ill-fated expedition, and the rest went home discomfited.

8. **Surrender of La Rochelle: 1628 A.D.**—Then Richelieu, exulting in the defeat of the English, on whose aid the Rochellers



LA ROCHELLE.

had mainly relied, went with King Louis XIII. to the camp of the French army, which had besieged this "proud city of the waters" on the land side. The cardinal, beneath whose priestly robe a soldier's heart was burning, threw himself with all his energy into the working of the siege. The Dukes of Soubise and Rohan, the leaders of the Huguenot party, were not then within the walls; but the mayor directed

the defence. The king, growing weary, went back to Paris. The cardinal remained. Finding that his greatest efforts by land could not take the city so long as the sea was open to the garrison, he tried to shut up the harbour, at first with stakes and then with a boom. Both plans failed, but his resources were not yet exhausted. Remembering how Alexander the Great had taken Tyre, he began to build up the entrance of the gulf. The Huguenots at first laughed loudly when they saw his soldiers, all turned engineers for the nonce, tumbling the rocks into the sea for the foundation of the mole; but when the structure topped the water and grew out into the deep, they began to be seriously alarmed. Still the masonry increased, and at length a dark mass of cemented rocks half a mile long, closing in the harbour, completed the circle of blockade. Earl Lindsey came

with ships from England, but could do nothing to aid the besieged. Famine ground them with its slow and terrible pain, until they had no resource left but to surrender to the triumphant Richelieu. The siege had lasted fourteen months. Of fifteen thousand who had begun the defence, there were then remaining only four thousand wasted spectres.

9. **The Huguenots subdued.**—But the work was not yet finished. There were towns in France in which Protestants still stood armed within stone walls. The Duke of Rohan held out in Languedoc, until the active cardinal taught him that to continue the struggle was a useless waste of strength. Then began negotiations, which ended in the destruction of the political power held by the Huguenots, but left them free to worship God in their own way according to the terms of the Edict of Nantes.

10. **Fame of Richelieu.**—For eighteen years this great minister worked out his schemes of foreign and domestic policy—his strong will triumphant in them all. He left the stamp of his excelling genius, not on France alone, but on all Europe. In every court his name was spoken with respect. The French Academy and the Palais Royal, then called Palais Cardinal, remain as monuments of his wisdom and his taste. His right-hand man, to whom was intrusted the management of his deepest political intrigues, was Father Joseph, a Capuchin friar, who held the office of almoner to his Eminence.

11. **His Death: 1642 A.D.**—In the last month of 1642 the cardinal died in his palace at Paris, at the age of fifty-eight. Almost with his last breath he recommended to the king the Italian Mazarin as his successor.

12. **His Character.**—The good of France may have been, as we are told it was, this priest's ruling passion; but certain it is, that while he worked for France, he never for a moment forgot Richelieu. That his genius as a statesman was magnificent is beyond question. The very grandeur of his success lies in the fact that he could reconcile two aims seemingly opposite—his own glory and his country's good—which have often clashed in meaner hands. His vanity led him to think himself a universal

genius. Not content to be known as a statesman of surpassing brilliance, and a respectable writer of sermons and despatches, he aimed at the fame of a poet and a wit. He seems to have had a passion for work. He never swerved from the course leading to the end he had in view. Crafty, pitiless, and cold, he crushed rudely down the gentler feelings of human nature; and woe to the man or the woman who dared to cross his path as he climbed the steep of power!

**13. Death of Louis XIII. : 1643 A.D.**—The king, Louis XIII., who had been a mere puppet in the hands of his great minister, died five months later, leaving a son, Louis, who was then only four years old. The queen-mother, Anne of Austria, assumed the government as regent, with Mazarin for her prime minister.

#### NOTES.

§ 5. **The Bastille**, the castle of Paris, built 1369–1383, and used chiefly as a State prison till its destruction by the populace in the Revolution of 1789.

8. **Alexander the Great**, King of Macedonia; born 356 B.C. The siege of Tyre occupied seven months: he built a pier across the strait, half a mile wide, which separated the island-city from the mainland, and thus gained access to the walls, which were carried by storm. Alexander died at Babylon, from a fever which he got while bathing, 323 B.C.

**SUMMARY.**—1610–17. Mary of Medici, mother of the young king, was made Regent of France; but the affairs of state were guided by Concini, an Italian.—1622. Richelieu was made a cardinal, and soon afterwards became first Minister of France. He humbled the nobles, and sought to break the power of the Huguenots, who had again grown strong.—1627–28. La Rochelle, the Huguenot stronghold, was besieged by Richelieu. The Duke of Buckingham brought aid to the city, but returned to England without accomplishing his purpose. Only when the entrance to the harbour was built up did the Rochellers yield, after a siege of fourteen months. Soon the Huguenots all over France were subdued.—1642. Richelieu died in his palace at Paris.—1643. At the death of Louis XIII. Anne of Austria became regent, and Mazarin prime minister.

## CHAPTER VI.

### *THE THIRTY YEARS' WAR.*

**Central Point: The Battle of Lützen—1632 A.D.**

**British History: Reign of James I.—1603–1625; and of Charles I.—1625–1649 A.D.**

1. Charles V. was succeeded in the empire of Germany by his brother Ferdinand; after whom reigned in succession Maximilian II., Rudolf II., and Matthias.

**2. Religion and Politics.**—Ever since the Reformation, the religious question had infected politics in all the principal countries of Europe. The conflict between Protestants and Romanists, at first waged only with tongue and pen, had in later days been often maintained with the sword. Early in the seventeenth century, when Matthias had held the imperial throne for six years, the last grand struggle began—the great Thirty Years' War, which enlisted on the one side or on the other all the chief Powers in Europe.

**3. Four Periods of the War.**—The Thirty Years' War may be most conveniently considered in four periods :—

(1.) The Bohemian Period (1618–1623). The leaders in this war were Frederic the Elector and Count Mansfeld, on the one side, and Maximilian of Bavaria and Baron Tilly, on the other.

(2.) The Danish Period, closing with the Treaty of Lübeck (1625–1629). In this war Christian IV. of Denmark was the great figure on the one side, and Wallenstein on the other.

(3.) The Swedish Period, closing with the Treaty of Prague (1630–1635). Gustavus Adolphus of Sweden, Tilly, and Wallenstein, were its heroes.

(4.) The French-Swedish Period, closing with the general Treaty of Westphalia (1635–1648). The prominent figures were Torstenson, Piccolomini, and Turenne.

The first and second wars were religious in their origin. The third and fourth had a strictly political character.

#### 1. BOHEMIAN PERIOD: 1618–1623 A.D.

**4. Ferdinand King of Bohemia: 1618 A.D.**—The war opened on a small scale in a contest for the throne of Bohemia, to which the Emperor Matthias had raised his cousin Ferdinand, Duke of Styria. This man, who was a bitter enemy of Protestantism, was looked on with alarm and dislike by the great mass of the people of that land, which had cradled John Huss and Jerome of Prague. Putting into practice the craft which he had learned in the schools of the Jesuits, he rested not until in town after town of the whole country the Protestant service was repressed. This could not be tamely borne. The Bohe-



mian Protestants, rising in arms, marched to the very walls of Vienna.

5. **Frederic chosen by the People: 1619 A.D.**—When Matthias died in 1619, Ferdinand was elected Emperor. But almost in the same hour he heard that the Bohemians, disgusted with the spirit of his government, and specially enraged at a secret family compact, by which he had bequeathed their crown to Spain if he died without male heirs, had with prayers and many tears chosen for their king Frederic, the Elector Palatine, a leader among the Protestants of Germany, and son-in-law of James I. of England. Thus the struggle for a crown between Protestant Frederic and Romish Ferdinand led to a wider war than that which had begun within the curve of the Bohemian mountains.

6. **The Union and the League: 1608-9 A.D.**—Already there existed in Europe two great and hostile confederacies—the Protestant Union and the Catholic League. The League naturally sided with Ferdinand, and the Union with Frederic, who was in fact its leader. The former depended chiefly on Spain; the latter looked for aid to England, to the Dutch Republic, and to the Protestant princes of Germany.

7. **Defeat of Frederic: 1620 A.D.**—The march into the Bohemian territory of fifty thousand Romanist troops under Duke Maximilian of Bavaria, the head of the League, took Frederic somewhat by surprise. A battle was fought at the White Mountain near Prague, in which the elector was defeated. He was forced to flee by night from the city, leaving his crown behind him. Twenty-seven of the leading Protestants were sent to the scaffold, and thousands were driven into exile. Ferdinand tore to pieces with his own hand the "Letter of Majesty," a document by which Rudolf II. had been forced to grant a certain degree of religious freedom to the Bohemians. The beaten elector fled to Brandenburg, and thence to Holland.

8. The electors of Brandenburg and Saxony both stood aloof from their fellow-electors—the one afraid of Austria, the other cautious, selfish, and watchful of his own position. But there was a Bohemian soldier, Count Mansfeld, who still dared to lift

the sword against the generals of Ferdinand. Frederic came back with reviving hopes, for Mansfeld was at the head of twenty thousand men. The general of the League, Baron Tilly, proving more than a match for the elector and his friends, drove him to take refuge once more in Holland. The electoral vote was taken from him and was transferred to Maximilian.

## 2. DANISH PERIOD: 1625-1629 A.D.

9. **Christian IV. of Denmark.**—The kings of Northern Europe were then greater men than are their descendants of the present day. Christian IV. of Denmark and Gustavus Adolphus of Sweden, who were both powerful princes, contended for the honour of leading the Protestant armies of Europe. The Swede was the Protestant hero of this great war; but the time had not yet come for his appearance on the changeful scene. The King of Denmark, who was also Duke of Holstein, was anxious to be beforehand with his royal neighbour and rival, and took the field in 1625 with a great army, as the leader of the Union and the champion of the Protestant cause.

10. **Wallenstein.**—Meanwhile the hero of the other side had arisen. When the Emperor Ferdinand was at his wit's end for men and money to meet this new confederacy, Albert Count Wallenstein, a rich and distinguished Bohemian officer, proposed to raise an army at his own expense, saying that when once in the field the men could support and pay themselves by plunder. The emperor accepted the proposal; and in a short time Wallenstein, at the head of a motley force of thirty thousand men, moved to the Elbe.

11. **Defeat of the Danes: 1626 A.D.**—The Danish war did not then last long. Christian IV. was defeated by Tilly at Lutter in Brunswick; and in the following year Wallenstein, whose rapid marches with a gigantic host, now swelled to one hundred thousand men, are the wonder of historians, drove him out of Germany, and, seizing all the peninsula of Denmark except one fort, shut him up in his islands. We are told that the great freebooter, raging that he had no ships in which to cross the Belt, bombarded the sea with red-hot shot. For his

great service Wallenstein was rewarded with the duchies of Mecklenburg, and he assumed the title of Generalissimo of the Emperor by land and sea.

12. **Peace of Lübeck: 1629 A.D.**—The next step in his plan of action was to secure the command of the Baltic; and for this purpose he laid siege to Stralsund (1628), a strong fort on the coast of Pomerania, opposite the island of Rügen. Want of ships prevented him from blockading the harbour. The citizens made a heroic defence; and reinforcements from Sweden finding a ready entrance by sea, Wallenstein had to abandon the hopeless siege. This repulse led the emperor to treat with Christian, who, by the inglorious peace of Lübeck, agreed to lay down the sword he had so feebly wielded.

### 3. SWEDISH PERIOD: 1630-1635 A.D.

13. **Intrigues of Richelieu.**—It has been already said that the aim of Richelieu's foreign policy was the humiliation of the House of Austria. In 1629 he found himself free to attempt this design, since the two leading objects of his domestic government had been attained. He had broken the power of the Huguenots at Rochelle, and he had tamed the haughty nobles of France. Already he had been deep in political intrigues against Ferdinand; and now, by the aid of the trusty Father Joseph, he gave a new turn to the war. Wallenstein, who had wrung million after million of dollars from the indignant Germans and persecuted them with merciless rigour, was hated by them for his extortion and his cruelty. Foremost among a clamorous complaining crowd was Maximilian of Bavaria, once the leader of the Catholic League, but now thrown into the shade by the victorious adventurer. The emissary of Richelieu, making a handle of the discontent of the German princes, artfully persuaded the emperor to dismiss Wallenstein. Obeying without a murmur, though he was then at the head of one hundred thousand troops flushed with victory, the Bohemian soldier retired to Prague, where he lived with more than royal magnificence (1630).

14. **Wallenstein in Retirement: 1630-32 A.D.**—Schiller gives

us a strange picture of his favourite hero during this time of eclipse. A tall, thin, yellow-faced man, with short red hair, small glittering eyes, and a dark, forbidding brow, sat silent within a palace of silent splendour. The pen seldom left his fingers, for his despatches still flew over all Europe. The neighbouring streets were closed, lest the noise of carriage-wheels should reach his ear. There, still and unsmiling, he waited for the time which the golden stars had promised—he was, like most men of his time, a believer in astrology—when he should be once more called to play a great part in history.

15. **Gustavus Adolphus.**—The crafty Richelieu, having thus weakened the cause of Ferdinand, rested not until he saw the Protestant armies marshalled by the greatest soldier of the age, Gustavus Adolphus, King of Sweden, who had indeed been long desirous of measuring his strength with that of the emperor. There is, in all the range of history, no character finer than that of Gustavus, the hero of this war. Brave himself, he kindled the fire of courage in his soldiers' hearts; religious himself, he took care that, morning and evening, every regiment should gather around its chaplain for prayer; the sworn foe of vice, yet ever tempering justice with mercy, he was at once loved and feared by his subjects and his soldiers.

16. **He lands in Pomerania: 1630 A.D.**—On the 20th May 1630, Gustavus, having assembled the States at Stockholm, took in his arms his little Christina, only four years old, and showed her to his people as their future sovereign. His farewell was uttered with broken voice, and heard with many tears. A month later, he landed on the island of Rügen in Pomerania with fifteen thousand men. At first all that was done in Vienna was to sneer at the *Snow King*, who, as the wits said, would melt as he marched southward. But when this same Snow King seized Stettin and overran all Pomerania, it was time to act. Tilly was made General-in-chief of the Austrian Armies. Still the career of the victorious Swede was unchecked. While Tilly was occupied with the siege of Magdeburg, Gustavus, strengthened by his alliance with France, took Frankfort-on-the-Oder.



GERMANY—THIRTY YEARS' WAR.

**17. Sack of Magdeburg: 1631 A.D.**—Magdeburg, then a great Protestant stronghold, stands on the Elbe. Enraged at the gallant defence of the place, Tilly ordered it to be taken by assault, before the Swedes could march to its relief. The horrors of the sack and massacre that followed are unspeakable. Tilly, it is said, tried to restrain his savage soldiery, but in vain. Thousands of all ages perished with the sword or in the flames of the burning streets.

**18. Battle of Leipsic: 1631 A.D.**—Gustavus Adolphus, forcing the selfish Elector of Saxony to join him, marched on Leipsic, which had opened its gates to Tilly. There was fought

a great battle, which secured the freedom of Germany. Tilly, without much difficulty, routed the Saxons, who fought apart from the Swedes. Seven times Pappenheim, the leader of the Austrian cavalry, dashed with his heavy cuirassiers on the lines of Swedish blue-coats ; but every time the wave advanced it recoiled in broken foam. Having thus repulsed Pappenheim, the royal Swede attacked the troops of Tilly, who had broken the Saxon wing. Seizing the heights where their cannon were planted, he turned their own guns on the imperial forces. This decided the day. Tilly fled, bleeding and defeated ; and Gustavus knelt among the slain and wounded to thank God for his victory. Seven thousand of the Austrian army lay dead. Their camp, all their cannon, and more than a hundred colours, fell into the hands of the victors.

**19. Defeat and Death of Tilly : 1632 A.D.**—Gustavus then marched into Central Germany, and having taken Frankfort-on-the-Main, he crossed the Rhine to besiege Mainz. The Spanish troops, who held the town, surrendered on the fourth day. The Swedish king thus gained the command of the Rhine, much to the alarm of Louis XIII., and even of Richelieu, who thought that the royal victor might push on to join the Huguenots, and overturn the Romish faith in France. But Gustavus had not yet finished his work in Germany. Turning south-eastward, he pressed on to the Lech, a tributary of the Danube. Tilly, having broken down all the bridges, defended the passage of the stream until he was mortally wounded by a cannon-ball, which shattered one of his legs. Then, breaking up his camp, he retreated to die. The Swedes, at once overrunning Saxon Bavaria, entered Munich in triumph. Already their allies were masters of Prague.

**20. Recall of Wallenstein : 1632 A.D.**—Ferdinand had then no resource but to recall Wallenstein, who, when he heard of these brilliant victories won by Gustavus, knew with secret joy that his star was rising once more. Coming forth from his retreat, he raised in three months, by the magic of his name and his splendid promises, a fine force of forty thousand men. But of these he would accept the command only on condition that he

should hold unlimited power over all the armies of Austria and Spain, and that no commission or pension should be granted by Ferdinand without his approval. To these demands, imperious though they were, the distressed emperor was forced to yield. Wallenstein took the field and drove the Saxons out of Bohemia. Then uniting his forces with those of the Elector Maximilian, he found himself at the head of sixty thousand veteran soldiers,—an army much larger than that marching under the banners of Gustavus. The Swede shut himself up in an intrenched camp at Nuremberg. Wallenstein did the same. There for eleven weeks the two armies lay face to face, watching each other, and wasting away with hunger and disease. In vain Gustavus offered battle; and on one occasion he made a furious attack on the camp of Wallenstein, which, however, was repulsed. At last, weary of doing nothing, both armies broke up their camps, to meet soon on a memorable battle-field.

**21. Battle of Lützen—Death of Gustavus: 1632 A.D.**—Wallenstein moved toward Dresden. Gustavus followed his march with rapid steps. On a plain near Lützen, a village twelve miles south-west of Leipsic, the imperial general awaited his royal foe. A fog delayed the attack until eleven o'clock. Gustavus went to battle with the music of Luther's noble hymn on his lips. The Swedish infantry took a battery, whose guns had galled them severely; but the flying Imperialists, rallied by the stern voice of Wallenstein, turned and drove them back in confusion. Gustavus, who had been victorious on the right, galloping like lightning to their aid, rode too near the enemy's lines. A bullet broke one of his arms, another pierced his back—he fell riddled with balls; and his riderless horse, dripping with blood, carried the sad news over the field. The Swedes, roused to fury, grew careless of danger and of death. In spite of the cool daring of Wallenstein, whose cloak was torn with many bullets, and the dashing valour of Pappenheim, who was shot to the heart at the head of his dragoons, the troops of the emperor gave way and fled. It was the "crowning mercy" of the Protestant cause; but there was no joy in that victory, for Gustavus Adolphus was dead.

22. To quote the eloquent words of Schiller:—"With the fall of their great leader, it is true, there was reason to apprehend the ruin of his party; but to the Power which governs the world the loss of no single man can be irreparable. Two great statesmen, Oxenstiern in Germany, and Richelieu in France, took the guidance of the helm of war as it dropped from his hands; destiny pursued its relentless course over his tomb, and the flame of war blazed for sixteen years longer over the ashes of the departed hero."

23. **Oxenstiern.**—With the death of Gustavus nearly all interest fades from the story of the war. At once Oxenstiern, the late king's chancellor and dear friend, who was then in Germany, hastened to the camp, and was chosen head of the Protestant confederacy by an assembly of princes. The Swedes and the Germans still kept the field. Ratisbon was taken by the Protestants; but the war degenerated into a succession of skirmishes, and pitched battles became very rare.

24. **Murder of Wallenstein: 1634 A.D.**—Wallenstein then began to harbour more ambitious designs. With the view of making an independent position for himself and probably of gaining the crown of Bohemia, he entered into secret negotiations with the Swedes, the Saxons, and the French court. These intrigues having been discovered, he was deposed from his command by imperial proclamation. One week later, he was assassinated in the castle of Eger. There is no proof that the emperor instigated the murder, but he richly rewarded the murderers.

25. **Treaty of Prague.**—The last battle of this section of the war was fought at Nördlingen, in Bavaria. There the Swedish army was routed by the imperialists under young Ferdinand, the emperor's son. A few months later (May), the Emperor concluded the Treaty of Prague with the Elector of Saxony. Freedom of worship was granted to the Lutherans alone among German dissenters. Sweden was excluded from the treaty, and as it was accepted by most of the Protestant States of the empire, it became in fact a German league against the Swedes.



**4. FRENCH-SWEDISH PERIOD: 1635-1648 A.D.**

**26. League of France and Sweden.**—Oxenstiern then threw his cause on the compassion of France. Richelieu, whom we have already beheld working behind the scenes, and whose covetous eye had long been fixed on Elsass, as a means of extending the French frontier to the Rhine, gladly obeyed the summons. Two fleets were fitted out, and six French armies took the field. In aid of the Protestants, the cardinal undertook to cripple the power of Spain, whose alliance formed the main prop of the emperor's cause. In the Netherlands, and in Italy, his soldiers fought the Spaniards; and on the Rhine, siding with the Swedes, they met the troops of the emperor.

**27. Death of Ferdinand: 1637 A.D.**—Ferdinand died in 1637; but the war kindled by his tyranny still desolated Europe. Many gallant leaders arose to fill the place of Gustavus; and of these perhaps the best was Bernard of Weimar, who died of plague in 1639. Torstenson, who had once been the page of Gustavus, and Wrangel, who was at first an admiral, led the Swedish armies towards the close of the war. The French were led by Marshal Turenne and the Prince of Condé. The imperialist generals were Piccolomini, Mercy, and John of Werth.

**28.** One of the chief events of the war was a brilliant victory gained by Torstenson at Leipsic (1642) over Piccolomini—a victory which so excited the envy of Christian IV. of Denmark that he resolved to throw himself once more into the fray. A war between Denmark and Sweden followed, in which the Danes were worsted, and lost the islands of Gotland and Oesel in the Baltic. During the last five years of the strife, peace negotiations were in progress.

**29. Treaty of Westphalia: 1648 A.D.**—At length the Treaty of Westphalia, signed at Munster, closed this eventful struggle. The leading terms of this celebrated treaty, which is looked upon as having laid the ground-work of modern Europe, were—(1.) That France should retain Metz, Toul, Verdun, and the whole of Elsass except Strassburg and a few other cities; receiving, instead of these, two fortresses—Breisach and Philipps-

burg, which were regarded as the keys of Upper Germany. (2.) That Holland should be a free State, independent alike of Spain and of the Empire. (3.) That the Swiss Cantons should be free. (4.) That Sweden, receiving Stralsund, Wismar, and other important posts on the Baltic, should also be paid five million dollars, as compensation for the expenses of the war. In its general effect, the Treaty of Westphalia marks the close of the ascendancy of Spain and Austria in Europe, and the beginning of the ascendancy of France.

**30. Condition of Germany.**—Germany lost for a time the free navigation of the Rhine and many of her richest provinces. The Empire dwindled away to a mere shadow of its former greatness. The leading princes soon made themselves wholly independent; and, if the petty States still clung to their emperor, it was only that he might shelter them from the inroads of their more powerful neighbours. The social condition of Germany after the war was utterly wretched. Her population, diminished to one-third of its former amount, crouched in the poverty-stricken land, whence art and science seemed to have fled for ever; where heaps of ashes marked the site of once busy towns; and where sandy deserts, stretching for leagues, filled the place of golden corn-fields.

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#### NOTES.

§ 11. **The Belt.** The Little Belt (or strait) separates the island of Fünen, the Great Belt that of Zealand, from the mainland of Denmark.

14. **Astrology**, a science which professed to foretell events by the position of certain stars in the heavens. Some of our common words, such as "ill-starred," "disaster" (Greek, *astron*, a star), had at first a purely astrological meaning.

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**SUMMARY.**—The Thirty Years' War may be divided into four periods. 1. (1618–1623) The Bohemian Period. Ferdinand, a Catholic, was made King of Bohemia by the Emperor Matthias; Frederic, a Protestant, was elected by the people.—1620. Frederic was defeated near Prague. 2. (1625–1629) The Danish Period. Christian IV. of Denmark led the Protestant army. He was opposed by Count Wallenstein.—1629. By the Peace of Lübeck Christian IV. agreed to lay down his arms. 3. (1630–1635) The Swedish Period. In defence of the Protestant cause, Gustavus Adolphus of Sweden marched southward, and landed in Pomerania.—1631. Magdeburg was sacked by Tilly.—1631. At Leipsic, Gustavus Adolphus defeated Tilly.—1632. In the Battle of Lützen the Imperialists were routed by Gustavus Adolphus, who fell in the fight.—1635. This part of the war was closed by the Treaty of Prague. 4. (1635–1648) The French-Swedish Period. An alliance was formed between Sweden and France; and a conflict was carried on with Spain, the imperial ally.—1648 The Thirty Years' War was brought to a close by the Treaty of Westphalia.

## SWEDISH SOVEREIGNS AFTER THE UNION OF CALMAR.

Margaret and Eric XIII ....A.D.	1397	Gustavus Vasa (frees Sweden	
Eric alone.....	1412	from Danish yoke).....A.D.	1523
Christopher III.....	1440	Eric XIV.....	1560
Charles VIII. (Knutson).....	1448	John III.....	1569
Interregnum.....	1471	Sigismund (King of Poland)...	1592
John II. (I. of Denmark).....	1483	Charles IX.....	1604
Interregnum.....	1502	Gustavus Adolphus.....	1611
Christian II. of Denmark (Nero		Interregnum.....	1632
of the North).....	1520	Christina.....	1633

## CHAPTER VII.

*LIFE IN GERMANY DURING THE AGE OF  
THE REFORMATION.*

1. **Jesuits and Capuchins.**—Immediately after the Reformation, Rome strove with all her might to regain her lost ground. Foremost in the counter-work were the Jesuits and the Capuchins. The latter, an offshoot from the old Franciscan order, took their name from the fact that they seceded from the original brotherhood, because they maintained that St. Francis wore a pointed hood or *capuchin*. These two orders divided the land between them. The Jesuits haunted the cities and towns; the Capuchins, by their jocular sermons, strove to draw the country folk to their services; and both drove a profitable trade in charms and in little pictures of the Virgin and the saints. The wily Jesuits, studying medicine and practising as physicians, gained a dangerous power over human life. With deep foresight they strove to get the education of the young into their hands. In Germany, however, their influence was comparatively feeble. There a great blow was struck at its root, when a German named Jansen denounced the hypocrisy and pride of the Jesuits, demanding instead humility, piety, and the fear of God (1638). His doctrine, called Jansenism, spread widely, especially in France.

2. **The Reformed Clergy.**—The Church of the Reformation

was torn by internal strife after the death of her great fathers. The Lutherans were opposed to the Calvinists; and these two sections were split into sub-divisions. Country ministers became too often mere hangers-on of the nobility, in whose gift were the village churches. The sermon continued to be the great central power of the Protestant worship; but controversies about certain mysterious articles of faith sprang up and well-nigh choked all life in the pulpit. Still the mass of the people held by that German Bible which their good Luther had translated for them amid the solitudes of the Wartburg; and in its solid pages they found more enduring profit than in the empty war of words.

3. **Ceremonies of State.**—A sketch of the coronation of the emperor will best convey an idea of the splendour which, after the decay of the imperial power, continued to adorn the imperial court: "The regalia, which were kept at Nuremberg, were brought to Frankfort-on-the-Main. Besides some relics, they consisted of Charlemagne's golden crown, set with rough diamonds; his golden ball, sword, and sceptre; the imperial mantle and robes; the priestly stole and the rings. The election over, a peal of bells ushered in the coronation-day: the emperor and all the princes assembled in the Römer, and proceeded thence on horseback to the cathedral, where, mass having been said, the elector of Mayence rose, as first bishop and arch-chancellor of the empire, and, staff in hand, demanded of the emperor in Latin, 'Are you willing to preserve the Catholic faith?' To which he replied, 'I am willing;' and he took the oath on the Gospel. Mayence then asked the electors 'whether they recognized the elected as emperor?' To which they with one accord replied, 'Let it be done.' The emperor then took his seat, and was anointed by Mayence, whilst Brandenburg held the vessel, and assisted in half disrobing the emperor. When anointed, he was attired in the robes of Charlemagne; and with the crown on his head he mounted the throne, while the hymn of St. Ambrose was chanted by the choir. His first act as emperor was performed by bestowing the honour of knighthood with the sword of Charlemagne, usually on a member of the

family of Dalberg of Rhenish Franconia. The emperor headed the procession on foot back to the Römer. Cloths of purple were spread on the way, and afterwards given to the people. The banquet was spread in the Römer. The emperor, and (when there happened to be one) the Roman king, sat alone at a table six feet high; the princes below; the empress on one side, three feet lower than the emperor. The electoral princes performed their offices. Bohemia, the imperial cup-bearer, rode to a fountain of wine, and bore the first glass to the emperor; Pfalz rode to an ox roasting whole, and carved the first slice for the emperor; Saxony rode into a heap of oats, and filled a measure for his lord; and, lastly, Brandenburg rode to a fountain, and filled the silver ewer. The wine, ox, oats, and imperial banquet, with all the dishes and vessels, were in conclusion given up to the people."<sup>1</sup>

4. **Courts of Law.**—There had been in former days in Germany a secret tribunal of strange and terrible power, called *Vehmgericht*. First formed under Engelbert, Archbishop of Cologne, it numbered in the fourteenth century one hundred thousand members, all bound together by a solemn oath. No churchman, Jew, woman, or servant was admitted a member, or was liable to the punishment of the court. The meetings of the tribunal were secret, and if sentence of death was passed, the unhappy criminal was found dead some day with a dagger, marked S.S.G.G. (stick, stone, grass, groan), sticking in his heart. Though this tribunal was disused in the sixteenth century, the secrecy which had been necessary to shield the judges from the dagger of revenge was still retained in the decisions of the law courts. German law was despised; and the old Roman law, which had never died out, became general. Since the people did not understand that system, it became necessary to employ advocates or professional pleaders.

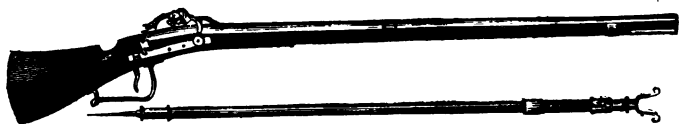
5. **Torture and Punishment.** — Torture, borrowed from Roman days, was now inflicted in Germany to a terrible extent. Every township and court had a chamber of horrors,

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<sup>1</sup> Menzel's History of Germany.

where the accused—as often innocent as guilty—were racked, thumb-screwed, or otherwise tortured; and on most of the hills of Germany a wheel and a gallows stood, as ghastly sentinels over the bones of the wretches they had slain. Some of the punishments were horribly ingenious. At Augsburg, clergymen found guilty of serious crimes were hung up in iron cages on the church towers to die of hunger, because, by the ecclesiastical laws, the hands of laymen were not allowed to inflict punishment on priestly wrong-doers.

**6. Soldiers and Arms.**—Germany was affected like the rest of Europe by the change which the invention of gunpowder wrought upon the art of war. Troops of Free-lances under experienced captains roved from court to court, serving for pay. These soldiers by profession, caring nothing for the cause they fought for, sold themselves for the time to the highest bidder. They were chiefly pikemen and arquebusiers; the former bearing long spears with a hatchet at one end, the latter armed with clumsy guns which were rested on forks. Gustavus Adolphus



MATCH-LOCK GUN AND FORK.

made many changes in the arms and accoutrements of his soldiers. In place of the heavy arquebus, he gave them the musket. He was the first to use light artillery, and he made great use of dragoons without armour, and armed with carbines.

**7. The Burghers.**—The power of the German cities, which had been very formidable in the fourteenth and fifteenth centuries, when they were united by the Hanseatic League, began to decline in the age of the Reformation, and during the storms of the Thirty Years' War it crumbled nearly altogether away. Of the Hansa towns, Bremen, Lübeck, and Hamburg were free as of old. Gradually the great towns had fallen into the hands of the princes, and the spirit of government had grown very aristocratic. The breaking up of the Hanseatic League, and

the consequent decline of German commerce, was one result of the enterprise of the English and Dutch merchants, who now began to draw the traffic of the world into their havens. The German burghers, growing luxurious, began to ape the court life, and even exceeded it in costly magnificence, which showed itself as well in their dress as in their manner of living.

8. **Amusements.**—The amusements of the citizens, like their feasts and finery, were on a rich, clumsy scale. The Carnival and the Fair days called out all the wild fun of the city. The gilds vied with one another in splendid shows and decorations, in which something to eat and drink seemed to be the grand inspiration of the design. As the princes had their buffoons and court fools, so each gild had its *Hanswurst* or Jack-pudding. Plays, called farces or mummeries, in which the actors wore masks, became a favourite amusement of Fair time.

9. **Houses.**—Still, in the old quarters of German cities, we may see the narrow streets, and tall, old, gloomy houses, which tell of the troubled Middle Ages. Even at the period of the Reformation, many changes for the better were visible in the streets of the free towns. Schools, libraries, hospitals, and poor-houses, were built by rich citizens, for the benefit of the poor. In every city there was still a Jewry, or Jews' quarter, into which they were locked at dusk.

10. **The Peasantry.**—The peasants of Eastern Germany stood on a very different footing from those of the West. The Slavonians of the east—of Austria, for example—though not free to leave their lord, had few burdens of taxation to bear; but the boors of Würtemberg and the west generally, while they possessed more personal freedom, were ground to the very dust with taxes and dues of all kinds. Since early feudal times it had been the custom for the peasant to pay his rent in grain, flax, fruit, cattle, poultry, or eggs. He also gave, in accordance with a practice called *soccage-service*, his own labour and that of his horses to his lord at stated times. Every change in the peasant's family—birth, marriage, or death—every season of the year, every part of his dwelling, or of his little farm, had its own tax; and all must be paid: so bitterly was the Ger-

man boor oppressed. There were left him but two consolations—his love for the fine legends of his Fatherland, and his faith in the truths of the Reformed religion. Ballads, proverbs, and coarse jests were the only ways in which the imbittered heart of the peasant could speak out.

11. **The Universities.**—It would be wrong to omit in this sketch of German life a notice of the German universities. During three hundred years (1348–1648) thirty-five universities were founded in the land. Before the Reformation, the Romanist colleges had been ruled by the Franciscans and Dominicans; but after the great change they fell into the hands of the Jesuits. The Protestant universities were at first placed under the Reformed clergy, and afterwards under lawyers and court-counsellors. The professors were then paid by the State; and the students (hence called *Burschen*) were arranged according to *Bursa*, which were institutions for their support. Students of older standing treated those who had newly joined the college with great roughness and brutality. A system resembling the fagging in English public schools was carried to so great an extent that in 1661 John George II. of Saxony was obliged to prevent the *Pennales* or young students from being robbed by the *Schorists* or elder ones, who took away the good clothes of the newly joined boys, besides compelling them to black their shoes and run their errands. After the Reformation, the study of classics began to be cultivated in the universities and schools, as affording the key to the true interpretation of the Bible. As a natural result of this, eminent critics and grammarians arose during the sixteenth century; and the classical scholars of Germany are still looked to with deep respect by the learned of all lands.

12. **Alchemy.**—Even the great and learned were infected at this time with the rage for alchemy. The Emperor Rudolf II. was called the prince of alchemists. One of the Electors of Saxony spent his whole life in searching for the philosopher's stone. The most absurd statements were seriously made and believed. A potter announced his discovery that the bodies of twenty-four Jews burned to ashes would yield an ounce of gold.



The Society of the Rosicrucians, founded in Swabia by Valentin Andrea, spread abroad the knowledge of the art and the mystical teachings of the physician Paracelsus. Besides the philosopher's stone, a universal medicine and an elixir of life were eagerly sought for,—but these chiefly by physicians. Astrology, too, and fortune-telling from the lines of the hand, were thoroughly believed in, and afforded to many a profitable trade.

13. **Witchcraft.**—The belief in witchcraft, long resisted in Germany during the Middle Ages, sprang up suddenly and strongly in the fifteenth century. Sprenger, a Dominican monk, wrote a book called “The Witch’s Hammer;” and forthwith all Germany and Switzerland trembled with fear. This man, whose greatest pride was that he had burned one hundred old women, obtained a papal bull against witchcraft. In 1678 six hundred old women were doomed at one time by a bishop, for having, as it was alleged, caused disease among cattle. So lately as 1783 a woman was burned for witchcraft at Glarus in Switzerland. Some merciful men tried to preach against this wretched error, but their voice was drowned in a howl of anger. A priest of Mayence was imprisoned for daring to raise his voice against the superstition, and another for so doing was himself denounced as a wizard.

14. **Poetry.**—The old German *Minnesingers*, whose lays were bright with pictures of chivalry, gave place at the close of the fourteenth century to the *Meistersingers* (Mastersingers), who carried on the manufacture of feeble and pompous verses as a profession, under the patronage of the civic gilds. They disappeared after the Reformation; and many fine ballads were then composed by soldiers or travelling students. These became great favourites with the common people, who love Nature in such things all the better when she wears a homespun dress. The best poems of the Reformation age are the satires; which, however, grew very coarse in the sixteenth century. Among dramatic writers the most noted of the time was a friend of Luther, Hans Sachs, the cobbler-bard of Nuremberg. Religion and politics deeply tinged all the stage literature of this age. We find such plays represented as “Luther’s Life,” “The

Peasant War," and "The Calvinistic Post-boy,"—in the last of which a Lutheran writer holds up his religious adversaries to ridicule; and during the Thirty Years' War dramas entitled, "A Swedish Treaty," and "Peace-wishing Germany," were publicly performed.

**15. Architecture and Painting.**—The Reformation gave a great blow to German architecture; for many grand Gothic structures—the Cathedral of Cologne and the Minster of Strassburg, for example—were left unfinished. But, where architecture lost ground, other arts advanced. Painting on glass was much improved; engraving, which had been invented about the middle of the fifteenth century, received a great impulse; and a German school of painting was formed, of which Lucas Cranach, Albrecht Dürer of Nuremberg, and Hans Holbein of Basel were the chief masters. Music, too, especially church music, was cultivated with much success. In 1628 the first German opera, "Daphne," was composed by Schütz, who borrowed his materials from the Italian.

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#### NOTES.

§ 4. **Vehmgericht.** This tribunal was organized in Westphalia, 1179, to subdue the lawlessness of the country, after it had passed from the Duke of Bavaria to the Archbishop of Cologne.

7. **Hanseatic League.** In 1247 Hamburg and Lübeck united in a league to defend their shipping against pirates. This league, known as the *Hansa*, attracted all the chief cities on the sea-board of the North Sea and the Baltic. It flourished for about four centuries, and at one time included eighty-five cities.

10. **Socage**, tenure of land by service which is certain and determinate—not uncertain like that of chivalry or knight's service.

11. **Pennales**—that is, *pen-cases*; fags. The system of "pennalism" is thought to have taken its rise from imitation of the usage of chivalry, in which a candidate for knighthood served first as the page of a knight.

12. **Alchemy**, the earliest stage of chemistry. The aims of the alchemists were, to turn other metals into gold, to discover the philosopher's stone and the elixir of life.

**Philosopher's stone**, an imaginary substance which was supposed to have the power of changing all baser metals into gold.

**Paracelsus**, a German physician, born 1493; in 1526 appointed professor of physic and surgery in Basel University. He was the first to point out that the true use of chemistry was to prepare medicines—not to make gold.

**Elixir of life**, a liquid which was supposed to give everlasting life and beauty.

14. **Minnesingers**, singers of love; from the root of *minion*, Fr. *mignon*, a darling.

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**SUMMARY.**—After the Reformation, the interests of the Romish Church were promoted by the Jesuits and the Capuchins. The Reformed Church suffered from internal strife between the Lutherans and the Calvinists. An imposing ceremony accompanied

the coronation of the emperor. In the sixteenth century Roman law took the place of the Secret Tribunal of Germany. Torture and excessive punishment were used to a terrible extent. Gustavus Adolphus made improvements in the army. The power of the German cities was broken during the Thirty Years' War, and the burghers became lazy and luxurious. The Carnival and the Fair days were the chief opportunities for amusement, which consisted of shows, plays, decorations, and feasts. The peasants of Western Germany were poor and down-trodden. During three hundred years thirty-five universities were founded. Alchemy and witchcraft were believed in. Ballads, satires, and dramas were produced at this time. Architecture began to give place to painting and to other arts.

### GREAT NAMES OF THE SIXTH PERIOD.

**MACHIAVELLI (NICCOLO).**—Born at Florence, 1469—at twenty-nine made secretary of the "Ten"—employed much in political missions—chief work, "The Prince," a book written to guide the Medici—wrote also "Commentary on Livy" and "Short Chronicles" in verse—died 1527.

**DÜRER (ALBRECHT).**—Born at Nuremberg, 1471—a painter and engraver—his masterpiece said to be a drawing of Orpheus—was the first man in Germany who taught the rules of perspective according to mathematical principles—died 1528.

**ARIOSTO (LUDOVICO).**—Born near Modena, 1474—gained the notice of Cardinal Ippolito by his lyrics—one of the best Italian satirists—great work, "Orlando Furioso," a chivalric poem, in 46 cantos, describing the madness of the famous knight Roland: it took thirteen years to write—died 1533.

**CORREGGIO (ANTONIO).**—Born in the duchy of Modena, 1493—a painter remarkable for his use of light and shade, and for his pure, sweet colouring—his pictures, "La Notte," "The Penitent Magdalen," "Venus Instructing Cupid," and "Ecce Homo," are very beautiful—died, 1534.

**COPERNICUS (NICOLAUS).**—Born at Thorn in Prussia, 1473—spent much time in the study of mathematics—struck with the complex nature of the Ptolemaic system, he wrote a work on the "Revolutions of the Heavenly Bodies," in which he fixes the sun as the centre of the system: his theory has been developed and corrected by Kepler, Galileo, and Newton—died 1543.

**HOLBEIN (HANS).**—born at Augsburg about 1495—came to England in the reign of Henry VIII.—most of the portraits of the Tudors are from his brush—of his other pictures, the chief is the "Dance of Death"—died about 1543.

**RABELAIS (FRANÇOIS).**—Born at Chinon in France, 1490—a monk, then a physician—appointed curé of Meudon—a great humourist—chief work, a satirical romance, of which a giant Gargantua, and his son, are the heroes—Swift is said to have imitated Rabelais in "Gulliver's Travels"—died 1553.

**CRANACH (LUCAS).**—Born in Bamberg, 1472—was court-painter to Frederic the Wise, Elector of Saxony, with whom he travelled to Palestine—painted portraits of Luther and Melancthon—died 1553.

**MICHAEL ANGELO (or BUONAROTTI).**—Born in Tuscany, 1474—the father of epic painting; also a fine architect, engineer, sculptor, and poet—the chief architect of St. Peter's at Rome—his greatest existing picture, "The Last Judgment," the work of eight years, finished in 1541—his statues of "Lorenzo" and "Moses" are magnificent—died 1564.

**TITIAN (or VECELLI).**—Born in the Venetian State, 1477—the finest colourist that ever lived—painted the portraits of doges, popes, and kings—lived at the courts of Charles V and Philip II.—among his pictures may be named "The Tribute-Money," "The Martyrdom of San Lorenzo," "Bacchus and Ariadne"—died of plague, 1576.

**CAMOENS (LUIS DE).**—Born at Lisbon, 1527—the great poet of Portugal—studied at Coimbra—sailed to India—returned a beggar after sixteen years' roving—died

in a hospital, 1579—his great epic, "The Lusiad," a picture of Portuguese glory, of which Vasco da Gama is a leading hero, was first printed in 1572.

**PAUL VERONESE** (familiar name of **PAOLO CAGLIARI**).—Born at Verona, 1528—son of a sculptor—an eminent master of ornamental painting—painted the walls of the ducal palace at Venice—his chief works are there: "The Marriage at Cana," one of his finest, is in the Louvre, at Paris—died at Venice, 1588.

**MONTAIGNE** (**MICHEL**, LORD OF).—Born 1533—son of a noble of Perigord in France—a judge in the parliament of Bordeaux, and afterwards mayor of that city—chief work, his "Essais," printed in 1580—held sceptical opinions—died 1592.

**TASSO** (**TORQUATO**).—Born at Sorrento, near Naples, 1544—a great Italian poet—wrote a chivalric poem, "Rinaldo," at the age of 18, also many love sonnets—his great poem, "Jerusalem Delivered," is an epic on the First Crusade—while on a visit to Rome to receive the laurel wreath, he died 25th April 1595.

**SPENSER** (**EDMUND**).—Born 1553—a great English poet—secretary to the Lord-Lieutenant of Ireland—lived at Kilcolman, county of Cork—chief work, "The Faerie Queene," an allegorical poem, written in a stanza of nine lines, called the Spenserian—died 1599.

**BRAHE** (**TYCHO**).—Born at Knudsthorp in Denmark, 1546—the reviver of correct astronomical observation—remarkable for his invention of instruments and for his numerous works—much favoured by Emperor Rudolf II.—died 1601.

**SHAKESPEARE** (**WILLIAM**).—Born 1564—the prince of dramatists—was born and died at Stratford-on-Avon—lived chiefly in London—wrote 35 plays between 1591 and 1614—wrote also 154 "Sonnets," and several longer poems—died 1616.

**CERVANTES** (or **SAAVEDRA**).—Born at Alcalá de Henares in Castile, 1547—in early life a soldier—famed as the author of the romance "Don Quixote," first published in 1605—wrote many novels, also "Journey to Parnassus," a satire on bad poets—died at Madrid, 1616.

**BACON** (**FRANCIS**).—Born 1561—Lord Chancellor and Viscount St. Albans—a great philosopher—wrote on chemistry and natural history—chief work, "The Instauration of the Sciences," a union of two books, namely, "The Advancement of Learning" (1605) and the "Novum Organum" (1620)—died 1626.

**KEPLER** (**JOHN**).—Born at Magstadt in Würtemberg, 1571—studied at Tübingen—a great astronomer—professor of astronomy at Grätz in Styria—afterwards principal mathematician to the emperor—great work, "New Astronomy," containing a book on the motion of the planet Mars—died of fever, 1630.

**DE VEGA** (**LOPE**).—Born at Madrid, November 25, 1562—a great Spanish dramatist—at first a soldier—then a priest—remarkable for the number of his writings—518 dramas remain from his pen, perhaps twice as many lost—died 1635.

**RUBENS** (**PETER PAUL**).—Born at Cologne, 1577—greatest painter of the Flemish school—painted the "Descent from the Cross," and the allegory of "War and Peace"—patronized by Charles I. of England—died at Antwerp, 1640.

**VANDYKE** (**ANTONY**).—Born at Antwerp, 1599—son of a glass-painter—pupil of Rubens—came to England in 1632—celebrated for his portraits—those of Charles I. and Strafford very fine—best historical picture, "The Crucifixion"—died 1641.

**GALILEO**.—Born at Pisa, 1564—first to use the telescope much in astronomy—discovered mountains in the moon, satellites of Jupiter, Saturn's rings, etc.—great work, "Dialogue on the Ptolemaic and Copernican Systems"—died 1642.

**POUSSIN** (**NICOLAS**).—Born at Andely in Normandy, 1594—a great painter—among his works are the "Death of Germanicus," the "Taking of Jerusalem," and the "Last Supper"—died at Rome, 1665.

## CHRONOLOGY OF THE SIXTH PERIOD.

## SIXTEENTH CENTURY.

Battle of Ceresuola: the French lose Naples.....	A. D. 1504
League of Cambray against Venice.....	1508
Battle of Flodden.....	1513
Francis I., king of France.....	1515
Charles I., king of Spain.....	1516
Luther publishes his ninety-five Theses.....	1517
Charles I. of Spain becomes Emperor Charles V.....	1519
The Disputation at Lelpsic.....	1519
Luther burns the Papal Bull.....	1520
Mexico conquered by Cortez.....	1521
Battle of Pavia.....	1525
Rome sacked by Bourbon.....	1527
The Reformers first called Protestants at Speyer.....	1529
League of Smalkalde.....	1530
Pizarro conquers Peru.....	1533
The order of Jesuits founded by Loyola.....	1534
Council of Trent begins to sit.....	1545
Convention of Passau.....	1552
Abdication of Charles V.....	1556
Elizabeth, queen of England.....	1558
The Inquisition established in France.....	1558
Battle of Dreux.....	1562
Peace of St. Germain.....	1570
Battle of Lepanto.....	1571
Massacre of St. Bartholomew.....	1572
Relief of Leyden.....	1574
Union of Utrecht.....	1579
William of Orange assassinated.....	1584
Defeat of the Spanish Armada.....	1588
Henry IV. (first royal Bourbon), king of France.....	1589
Battle of Ivry.....	1590
Edict of Nantes.....	1598
Treaty of Vervins.....	1598

## SEVENTEENTH CENTURY.

Union of English and Scottish crowns.....	1603
Assassination of Henry IV.....	1610
Opening of the Thirty Years' War.....	1618
Defeat of the Elector Frederic at Prague.....	1620
Richelieu gains a seat in the Council.....	1624
Siege of La Rochelle.....	1628
Peace of Lübeck.....	1629
Gustavus Adolphus lands in Pomerania.....	1630
Hanseatic League dissolved.....	1630
Sack of Magdeburg.....	1631
Battle of Lelpsic.....	1631
Battle of Lützen: Death of Gustavus Adolphus.....	1632
Peace of Westphalia: Close of Thirty Years' War.....	1648
Charles I. of England beheaded.....	1649

## Seventh Period.

From the End of the Thirty Years' War to the  
Beginning of the French Revolution.

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### CHAPTER I.

#### *LOUIS XIV. OF FRANCE.—PART I.*

**Central Point:** Death of Cardinal Mazarin—1661 A.D.

**British History:** Reign of Charles I.—1625-1649; Commonwealth—1649-1660; Reign of Charles II.—1660-1685 A.D.

1. **Periods of the Reign.**—The long reign of Louis XIV. (1643-1715), woven as it is into a thousand great events of European history, may best be viewed in five sections:—

- (1.) The administration of Mazarin, extending from the beginning of the reign to the cardinal's death in 1661.
- (2.) From the coming of Louis himself to power to the Treaty of Nimwegen in 1678. This period was occupied chiefly by a war in the Spanish Netherlands.
- (3.) An interval of eleven years, during which the domestic policy of the king is most clearly displayed (1678-86).
- (4.) A second great war, in which William III. of England was the life and soul of a powerful league, formed to check the ambition of Louis. This war broke out in 1688 and was closed by the Treaty of Ryswick in 1697.
- (5.) The last period, embracing the great War of the Spanish Succession, which opened in 1701, and was closed by the Treaty of Utrecht in 1713. Two years later Louis died.

## FIRST PERIOD: 1643-1661 A.D.

2. **Battle of Rocroi: 1643 A.D.**—When in May 1643 Anne of Austria was left with her little Louis, then not five years old, at the head of French affairs, she placed all her confidence in the Italian priest Mazarin, whom Richelieu with his dying breath had recommended to Louis XIII. The earliest incidents of the reign were connected with the Spanish War, which grew out of the Thirty Years' War and still continued. A victory won over the Spaniards by the young prince of Condé at Rocroi, on the north-east frontier of France, only a few days after the king's accession, augured well for the brilliancy of the new era, and raised both Mazarin and Condé high in public favour.

3. **War of the Fronde: 1648-1653 A.D.**—About the time that the Treaty of Westphalia was signed, an insurrection broke out in France, which is known as the Civil War of the *Fronde* (from the French word for a sling). It convulsed the land for six years. The courtiers in mockery called the rebels *Frondeurs* (slingers), because on the first outbreak of the quarrel the *gamins* of the Paris streets were foremost with their slings. In point of fact, however, the *Frondeurs* were the constitutional party of France, corresponding to the parliamentary party in the English civil war. They contended for the right of the Parliament of Paris to register or to refuse to register the royal edicts imposing taxes on the people. On the one side in this civil war were the Queen, Mazarin, and the courtiers; on the other, the leading nobles, Archbishop de Retz, the Parliament, and the citizens of Paris.

4. One day in August 1648, several of the most obstinate members of the Parliament were arrested and sent into exile. At once the Paris mob—always inflammable—rose in a blaze of revolt, and threw up barricades in the streets. Anne, her royal son, and her pliant minister had to bow before the storm. Retiring to St. Germain, they lived a while in poverty so great, that they were obliged to pawn the crown jewels for their daily bread. Mazarin was declared by the Parliament an enemy to the kingdom and the public peace. The *Frondeurs* had the upper-hand, and rose aimlessly over all France, until Condé,

going over to the court party, scattered the troops of the Parliament. The court then returned to Paris, where the mob, veering round with their wonted fickleness, received the cardinal with shouts of joy. Condé, whose great military renown cannot blind us to his arrogance, once more deserted the royal cause, and was arrested in 1650 at the council board, along with some of the leading Frondeurs. The rebels again took arms under Turenne, whose name as a soldier was rising fast. Mazarin, obliged to leave France, took refuge in Cologne, where he still wove his crafty schemes, and continued, though far away, to act as pilot of the State.

**5. Battle of St. Antoine: 1652 A.D.**—Turenne then joined the court party, and a great battle was fought between him and Condé, in the Faubourg St. Antoine. Young Louis looked on from a hill. All Paris sat awaiting the event of the fight, which raged doubtfully until the daughter of the Duke of Orleans, a leading Frondeur, fired the cannon of the Bastille on the royal troops and forced Turenne to retreat. Thus the Frondeurs won a short-lived triumph; but Louis, again dismissing Mazarin, whose stay at Cologne had not been long, won the citizens to his side. The Fronde war was really over, though its embers smouldered for a year or two longer. De Retz was in prison; Condé fled to the Spanish armies, with them to draw sword against his country. The Parliament submitted; and in 1653 the triumphant Mazarin became again Prime Minister of France.

**6.** During these miserable years of aimless change and bloodshed, the great English Revolution reached its crisis. How different were the pictures on the two sides of the narrow sea! In England, a great national movement, whose forces were centralized, and whose aims were directed by one master mind, proceeded steadily toward a fixed purpose. In France, there was a jumble of petty street fights and broken laws, with leaders changing sides, as suited their selfish schemes, and no man seeming to know his own mind, except the crafty Italian, who, watching the scrambling crowds, bided his own time.

**7. Dunkirk given to England: 1658 A.D.**—The war with



Spain was not yet over. The renegade Condé, fighting under Spanish colours, was opposed by Turenne, now a marshal of France. The Spanish Netherlands was the scene of the war. The genius of Turenne had the best in this struggle; and, when Mazarin induced Cromwell to throw in the weight of his great name, and to send his invincible ships and pikemen to the aid of France, Dunkirk, the strongest fortress in Flanders, fell before the allied besiegers. Dunkirk was, by treaty, made over to the English; who received it, no doubt, in the hope that it would prove a second Calais, and once more give England a footing on the Continent. It was basely sold by Charles the Second (1662); but no Calais or Dunkirk would ever repay Great Britain for the blood and the money it would cost her to keep up a useless power in France or in Flanders.

8. **Louis seeks the imperial Throne.**—On the death of the Emperor Ferdinand III., Mazarin put forth all his energies to gain the imperial throne for his master, Louis. Louis himself was dazzled by the glittering prize; but neither the gold of the young king nor the craft of the old priest could prevent the election of Ferdinand's son Leopold, King of Hungary and Bohemia. Thenceforward there never ceased to rankle in Louis's heart a bitter hatred of the emperor, which, sharpened by his lust of absolute power, was the cause of all his great wars. From that hour he never ceased to assail the power of the House of Austria.

9. **Treaty of the Pyrenees: 1659 A.D.**—The war between France and Spain was closed by the Treaty of the Pyrenees, arranged by Mazarin and his rival in craft, Don Luis de Haro, the Spanish minister, who met on the Isle of Pheasants in the Bidassoa. The chief terms of the treaty were, that Louis XIV. should marry the Infanta Maria-Theresa; that Condé should be pardoned for his desertion of the French cause; that Rousillon should become a part of France; and that the northern French frontier should be extended to Gravelines. By the same treaty Louis agreed to renounce all claims to the Spanish throne, which might arise from his marriage. This he did both for himself and for his descendants. Nevertheless he after-

wards claimed the throne for his grandson, and the War of the Spanish Succession (1701-13) was the result.

**10. Death of Mazarin: 1661 A.D.**—Cardinal Mazarin, whose hold on the king never loosened to the last, died of gout, on the 9th of March 1661. Unbounded avarice was one of the worst features of his character. In his last days he had, to use Voltaire's words, two-thirds of the national coin in his chests; and the money, rubies, emeralds, and diamonds, shared by his will among his relatives and friends, seem like the treasures of some fairy-favoured prince in the Arabian tales. He was the very prince of dissemblers—supple, sly, and polite. His death left Louis XIV. the most absolute ruler in Christendom.

#### SECOND PERIOD: 1661-1678 A.D.

**11. Colbert, Minister of Finance: 1661-83 A.D.**—Louis was then twenty-three. With Colbert as his Minister of Finance, and Louvois as his Minister of War, he began the most splendid period of his reign. Colbert, who found the State loaded with enormous debts, and the farmers of the revenue pocketing vast sums every year, set himself to retrieve the desperate state of the finances. He knew business well, for his early years had been spent in a counting-house at Lyons. Cutting down the land-tax and the income-tax, he greatly increased the taxes on articles of consumption, preferring the indirect method of raising a revenue. Then he steadily encouraged commerce; established colonies; gave an impulse to manufactures; cut the Languedoc Canal; built dockyards at Brest, Rochefort, and Toulon; made Marseilles a free port; bought Dunkirk and Mardyck from Charles II.; and sent French consuls to the chief ports of the Levant. As fast as he replenished the coffers of the State, however, they were drained by his rival Louvois the War Minister, who encouraged Louis in his ceaseless and expensive wars.

**12. War in the Spanish Netherlands: 1665 A.D.**—On the death of the Spanish king, Philip IV., in 1665, Louis, conscious of his strength, laid claim to the Spanish Netherlands. Wilfully shutting his eyes to the Treaty of the Pyrenees, he pointed, in

defence of his claim, to an old law of Brabant, by which, in cases of private property, the daughter of a first marriage sometimes came in before the son of a second. Charles II., the new king of Spain, was a delicate child, and the queen-mother was a weak woman. "Why," thought Louis, "may I not seize the golden moment? My friend, De Witt, is ruler of Holland; and there is none to guard Flanders." So, with three great armies, amounting to sixty thousand men, he passed the frontier, and pierced the Netherlands to the Scheldt. The many towns he took, Lisle among the number, were fortified for him on a new plan by the great military engineer Vauban.

**13. Treaty of Aix-la-Chapelle: 1668 A.D.**—Europe was startled into action by this sudden success. To oppose France, the Triple Alliance was formed, by England, Sweden, and Holland. William of Orange (afterwards King of England), was

its chief promoter. Louis then thought it best to wait for a time when he could undermine and blow to pieces a confederacy so dangerous to his plans. In 1668 he therefore agreed to the Treaty of Aix-la-Chapelle.



WILLIAM OF ORANGE.

**14. War with the Dutch: 1672 A.D.**—Even while the ink that signed the peace was wet, his heart was charged with war. The Dutch must be crushed for their audacious resistance.

It was a fitting time for the blow, since civil strife between the Orange and De Witt factions had weakened the nation. With ease he bought off Charles II. of England, whose aid was the great hope of the Dutch; and then, gathering a fleet of one hundred sail, and arming one hundred and twenty thousand French soldiers with

the bayonet, a new and terrible weapon, he began the war again. The Dutch placed their army, not numbering at the outside fifty thousand, under the command of Orange, who, even at the unripe age of twenty-two, was esteemed for his grave steadiness and silent wisdom.

15. Early in 1672 the French crossed the Rhine in great force. Louis had with him Turenne and Condé, the greatest captains of the age; and nothing seemed surer than the ruin of the Dutch Republic. Town after town surrendered to the French armies; and William retreated with his little band to the province of South Holland. In a few weeks Gelderland, Utrecht, and Overijssel lay at the feet of Louis, who, fixing his court at Utrecht, wasted the days in idle splendour.

16. **Death of the Brothers De Witt: 1672 A.D.**—Meanwhile the sturdy burghers of Amsterdam had caught the spirit of their young captain. Remembering what their forefathers had done in the Spanish war, they opened the sluices, let in the sea, and laid the whole land under water. But the history of this noble struggle is stained with a deplorable crime. The brothers De Witt, John and Cornelius, strong republicans, by whose means the Perpetual Edict, abolishing for ever the office of Stadtholder, had been passed in 1667, fell victims to the factious rage of the Orange party. They were dragged from prison, and murdered by the mob. The stadtholdership was then revived and given to William of Orange.

17. The spirit of the Dutch was wonderful. Resolved to cling to the uttermost to the low meadows they had rescued from the ocean—as William strongly put it in his reply to the English ambassador, “to die in disputing the last ditch”—they had still, even if their last standing-place in Europe were cut from beneath their feet, one resource left. The sea was open, and when the worst came, in the distant East, “the Dutch Commonwealth might commence a new and more glorious existence, and might rear, under the Southern Cross, amidst the sugar canes and nutmeg trees, the Exchange of a wealthier Amsterdam, and the schools of a more learned Leyden.” As if the elements had been commissioned to preserve this resource

for the Dutch, a mighty storm arose, which shattered the French fleet, and prevented new troops from landing.

**18. Death of Turenne: 1675 A.D.**—Gradually aid came from many quarters to revive the hopes of Holland. Peace was made with England (1674). William of Orange met the veteran Condé on the bloody field of Seneffe, and, although worsted, extorted from his noble foe the praise of having acted like an old captain in everything, except in venturing his life like a young soldier. At the same time Turenne was fighting successfully on the Rhine, where, with a small force of twenty thousand, he cleared Elsass of a host of German and Austrian invaders. There, early in the next year, while surveying the position of his opponent, the imperial general, he was killed by a cannon ball. A tomb at St. Denis received his body, which there mingles with the dust of the French kings.

**19. Peace of Nimwegen: 1678 A.D.**—After six years of war, during which Louis put forth his full strength in unavailing efforts to break the spirit of the Dutch, a treaty was made at Nimwegen, of which one of the leading terms was, that the French king should keep Franche-Comté, and several towns in the Southern Netherlands.

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#### NOTES.

§ 3. Gamins, roughts or urchins.

7. A second Calais. In 1347 Calais was taken after a long siege by Edward III. of England; it remained in the hands of the English till 1558, when it was retaken by the Duke of Guise.

17. The Southern Cross, a brilliant group of stars, visible in the southern hemisphere; in their arrangement they show the form of a cross.

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**SUMMARY.**—1643. A victory of the French over the Spaniards was won at Rocroi.—1648-53. The Civil War of the Fronde convulsed the land.—1652. At the Battle of St. Antoine, the Frondeurs defeated the court party.—1658. Dunkirk was made over to England. Louis tried to secure the imperial crown for himself, but Ferdinand's son Leopold was elected emperor.—1659. The Treaty of the Pyrenees closed the war between France and Spain.—1661. Colbert became Louis's Minister of Finance.—1665. Louis invaded the Spanish Netherlands.—1668. He agreed to the Treaty of Aix-la-Chapelle.—1672. Louis overran the provinces of the Dutch Republic. The French fleet was shattered by a storm.—1672. The brothers De Witt were put to death by the Orange party.—1675. Turenne died while fighting on the Rhine.—1678. The Peace of Nimwegen was made.

## CHAPTER II.

*LOUIS XIV. OF FRANCE.—PART II.*

**Central Point:** Revocation of the Edict of Nantes—1685 A.D.

**British History:** Reigns of Charles II.—1660-1685; James II.—1685-1688;  
William and Mary—1689-1702 A.D.

**THIRD PERIOD: 1678-1686 A.D.**

1. **Arrogance of Louis.**—Between the Treaty of Nimwegen and the formation of the League of Augsburg in 1686, there were eight years of comparative peace, which afford us a clear view of the policy followed by the "Great Monarch." So the municipal authorities of Paris had begun to call their king, who, in the new-blown magnificence of the title, squared his elbows and strutted on his red-heeled shoes more majestically than ever. The task of establishing a thorough despotism, begun by Richelieu, and earnestly wrought at by Mazarin, was completed by Louis XIV. The picture of the beardless king of seventeen, flinging himself from his horse after a sharp ride from Vincennes, and striding with heavy boots and whip in hand into the chamber where the Parliament of Paris sat discussing his edict on coinage, gives us a glimpse of a will which hardened into iron as the years went by. "I forbid you, Mr. President," said the royal stripling, "to discuss *my* edicts."

2. The key to his whole policy lies in his well-known words, when some one talked of the State. "*L'État?*" said Louis, "*c'est moi*,"—*I am the State*. In one aspect the saying was the sublime of arrogance. In another and deeper sense, it was the exposition of a policy. It meant simply that by concentrating all power in himself, Louis had in fact made himself the State.

3. **The Edict of Nantes revoked: 1685 A.D.**—Louis's chief blunder as a statesman was his treatment of the French Protestants. They had come to be the marrow of the land. They carried on nearly all the manufactures, and numbered among them the most skilful work-people; yet Louis never looked

kindly on them. One right after another was wrested from them, until at last their ministers were forbidden to preach, and their teachers to give instruction, except in reading, writing, and arithmetic. Public offices and professions were closed against them; and they lost even the shelter of the laws. The state of matters grew worse after the death of Colbert (1683), who both valued and befriended the Huguenots. The influence of his enemy Louvois then became supreme, and it encouraged the persecutors. It was the time of the infamous *dragonnades* in Languedoc, when regiments of dragoons hunted down the fleeing Protestants. To crown this senseless cruelty, the Edict of Nantes (1598) was revoked; the Reformed religion was proscribed, and parents were required to educate their children in the Roman Catholic faith. This was the last drop in their cup of bitterness. Though emigration was forbidden, upwards of fifty thousand families, shaking the dust of France from their feet, carried their brave hearts and skilful hands to other lands, where quiet homes, bright with religious freedom, rewarded honest toil. England, Holland, and Germany received the refugees, who included persons of noble birth, officers in the army, and men of letters, as well as cotters, silk-weavers, and other artisans. The virulent hatred which Louis bore toward the Protestants was due in some measure to the influence of Madame de Maintenon, who, at the time of the Revocation, filled his dead wife's place. Formerly a Calvinist herself, she hated and would hunt to the death those who clung to the faith she had abjured.

4. **Relief of Vienna: 1683 A.D.**—In 1683 an event occurred—a turning-point in European history—in which Louis played an unworthy part. The Turks, mustering in overwhelming force, two hundred thousand strong, marched on Vienna, from which the Emperor Leopold fled in terror. It was a terrible moment. Once before had the liberties of Christendom been in similar peril, with the Moslem sabre swung for a fatal blow, which seemed about to cut them for ever to the earth. That was ten centuries earlier, when, on the plain of Tours, Charles the Hammer saved Europe. Now, too, a deliverer arose. John

Sobieski, King of Poland, leading an army of Poles and Germans to the rescue, drove the Turks from their trenches in such headlong rout, that tents, cannon, baggage, even the famous standard of Mahomet, were all left behind. It was afterwards discovered that Louis had secretly encouraged the Turks, although in public he had plumed himself on his forbearance in not having fallen on the distressed emperor in his time of trouble.

#### FOURTH PERIOD: 1686-1697 A.D.

5. **The League of Augsburg: 1686 A.D.**—The League of Augsburg was formed in 1686, in order to check the overweening ambition of the French king, and to preserve the balance of power. Formed at first by the princes of the empire, it afterwards included Spain, Holland, Denmark, Sweden, Savoy, and last, though far from least, England. Two years later, the great English Revolution dethroned James II., and placed William of Orange, Louis's mightiest foe, in a position of commanding eminence. That great captain accepted with grave joy the leadership of the League.

6. War began in 1688. Louis had two armies in Flanders, and sent another into Spain. Then, that there might be a barrier between France and Germany, Louvois caused the Palatinate to be ruthlessly devastated. With fire and sword the fertile State was turned into a silent, black, blood-stained desert. At the same time he supported the cause of the dethroned James in Ireland—with how little success every reader of English history knows. At first the cause of Louis prospered, especially at sea. In 1690, his admiral, Tourville, beat the Dutch and English fleets in a hot action off Beachy Head. His marshals overran Savoy and Flanders; and in 1692 the strong fortress of Namur fell before his troops.

7. **Battle off Cape La Hogue: 1692 A.D.**—Then there fell on him the heaviest blow he had yet felt. About four o'clock on a summer morning, Admiral Russell, sailing in the Channel with English and Dutch ships, caught sight of the French fleet under Tourville cruising off Cape La Hogue, to the east of the Cotentin. They closed at once in action, and through all the hot



day the cannon roared. Not a French ship would have been saved, had not a fog fallen in the afternoon. As it was, the loss of twenty line-of-battle ships crippled the navy of Louis beyond remedy; and his great scheme of invading England vanished into air.

**8. Treaty of Ryswick: 1697 A.D.**—By land, however, the French arms were still victorious. At Steenkirke and Neerwinden (1693)—the latter a most bloody day—William was beaten by Marshal Luxemburg. But William, undismayed by defeat, bided his time; and the time came at last. When Luxemburg and Louvois died, Louis, with an empty purse and a famine-stricken kingdom, ceased to show himself in his camp. The news of English mortars shelling into ruin the walls of his sea-ports—Calais, Havre, and Dunkirk—quite sank his failing heart. Then William retook Namur (1695), and Louis began to wish for peace. Two years later he concluded, with England, Spain, and Holland, the Treaty of Ryswick, by which his rival was acknowledged to be the lawful king of England. By a separate treaty with the emperor, signed one month later, Louis was confirmed in the possession of Strassburg, which he had seized in 1681, and had caused Vauban to surround with huge fortifications. Thus he still held a key to Germany on the Rhine.

#### FIFTH PERIOD: 1700-1715 A.D.

**9. War of the Spanish Succession.**—The marriage of Louis to Maria-Theresa of Spain had formed the ground of his claim to the Spanish Netherlands. In 1700, on the death of Charles II. of Spain, the same marriage enabled him to accept the crown of Spain for his grandson, Philip, Duke of Anjou. To this prince the dying Charles, indignant at an arrangement for parcelling out the Spanish dominions, which had been proposed by the English king, had already left the throne by will. But the Archduke Charles of Austria, the second son of the emperor, by his second marriage, came forward as a competitor for the vacant kingship; and the destructive "War of the Spanish Succession" began.

**10. The Grand Alliance: 1701 A.D.**—England, Austria, and

Holland united in a league called the Grand Alliance, which had for its chief aim to prevent the union of the crowns of France and Spain in the family of the Bourbons. Prussia and Denmark also supported the Austrian claimant, who called himself Charles III. The grandson of Louis assumed the title of Philip V.

11. **Marlborough and Eugene.**—The death of William III. of England in 1702 was a heavy blow to the Austrian cause; but of the two captains who arose to fill his place, one at least was greater in the field than he—this was John Churchill, Duke of Marlborough, so great a soldier, though so mean a man. The other was Prince Eugene of Savoy.



JOHN CHURCHILL, DUKE OF MARLBOROUGH.

12. It would be useless and confusing to trace in detail the marchings and counter-marchings, battles, sieges, and surprises of this war of twelve campaigns.

Louis had now no marshals such as Condé or Turenne had been. Villars, Tallard, Vendôme, and Villeroy, led his armies, skilfully, no doubt, so far as their skill could go, and with all due attention to the formal rules of warfare; but they lacked that original genius for soldiering which Nature had given to their foes. Besides, Louis required from them an implicit obedience to his will, which greatly hindered their plans.

13. In 1702 the Dutch and English ships destroyed a French fleet in the Bay of Vigo, and took many Spanish galleons heaped

with American gold. That was followed, during the next six years, by Marlborough's four magnificent victories, which deserve more particular notice.

14. **Battle of Blenheim: 1704 A.D.**—A French and Bavarian army of eighty thousand men, under Tallard, lay on a hill above the Danube, between the village of Blenheim and a thick wood. A brook, the water of which spread into the swampy plain, ran between them and an allied force of equal number under Marlborough and Eugene. Tallard allowed Marlborough to cross the swamp unopposed; and thus his chance of victory was gone. Rapidly the English general scattered the French horse and foot, slaying or seizing nearly forty thousand men. The same year is renowned in the annals of Great Britain for the taking of Gibraltar from the Spaniards.

15. **Battle of Ramillies: 1706 A.D.**—At Ramillies, a Belgian village, the second great blow was given. The struggle there was between Marlborough and Villeroi; and the English chief threw his rival's lines into confusion by a feigned attack on the left wing.

16. **Battle of Oudenarde: 1708 A.D.**—Oudenarde on the Scheldt was the scene of the third great triumph. There, during a long summer day, Marlborough, with Eugene not far off, beat a part of the great French force under Vendôme and the Duke of Burgundy. The defeat was so thorough, that the French fled next night by five different roads (July 11, 1708). The victors then took Lisle.

17. **Battle of Malplaquet: 1709 A.D.**—Within a league of Mons, which Marlborough and Eugene were besieging in 1709, Marshal Villars intrenched himself strongly, beside the village of Malplaquet. The allied leaders advanced to dislodge him (September 11), and a long and bloody battle was fought, until Villars was wounded, and his second in command, Boufflers, beat a speedy retreat. The victory was disastrous to the allies, who lost twenty thousand men—twice as many as the French; but the capture of Mons followed at once.

18. **The French in Spain: 1707 A.D.**—In Italy, the power of the French was completely broken; but in Spain, notwithstand-



THE NETHERLANDS.

ing the early successes of the Archduke Charles, aided by the splendid talents of the English Earl of Peterborough, the arms of Louis were crowned with victory. The Battle of Almanza, won in 1707 by the Duke of Berwick, placed Philip V. on the Spanish throne. Thenceforth the Archduke Charles was nowhere.

**19. Death of the Emperor: 1711 A.D.**—The death of the Emperor Joseph in 1711 changed the whole position of affairs. The Archduke Charles succeeded his brother on the imperial

throne ; and if he had obtained the Spanish crown also, the vast empire of Charles V. would have been revived. There was indeed a greater objection to the union of Spain with Austria in one person than to the union of Spain with France in one family. Besides, Marlborough had been dismissed in disgrace. All Europe was tired of the deadly war ; and so the Treaty of Utrecht was signed.

20. **Treaty of Utrecht: 1713; of Rastadt: 1714 A.D.**—By this treaty, Great Britain got possession of Gibraltar and Minorca—great keys of the Mediterranean—along with Newfoundland, St. Kitts, and Hudson Bay. Philip V. was permitted to hold the Spanish throne, on condition of giving up all claim to the crown of France. The Treaty of Rastadt, between Austria and France, which completed the Peace of Utrecht, was signed March 6th, 1714. Austria received Naples, Milan, Sardinia, and Spanish Flanders ; while Lisle and French Flanders went to France, the Rhine, too, being fixed as her eastern boundary at Elsass, afterwards called Alsace.

21. **Death of Louis XIV.: 1715 A.D.**—The reign of Louis XIV. closed in the following year. For seventy-two years he had worn the crown of France ; and during fifty-four of these he had centralized all power in himself. Before cutting down the gray-haired monarch, Death left his splendid palace lonely. His son, the Dauphin, died in 1711. His grandson, the Duke of Burgundy, died in 1712. A little child of five years, his great grandson, afterwards Louis XV., was the heir to the sceptre which was dropping from his withered hand. He died on the 1st of September 1715, aged seventy-seven.

22. **His Character.**—Louis XIV. received the title of “Great” from the lips of his flatterers ; but history has not endorsed the name. Great he was in sinful extravagance, in love of pomp and show, in selfishness and irreligion, but not in those qualities which make a good man or a wise king. He wore shoes with red heels, four inches high, to lift his body above the level of average-sized men. Strutting about, bedizened with rich laces and velvets, with diamonds and gold, he strove to awe the men and captivate the women of his realm with his majestic deport-

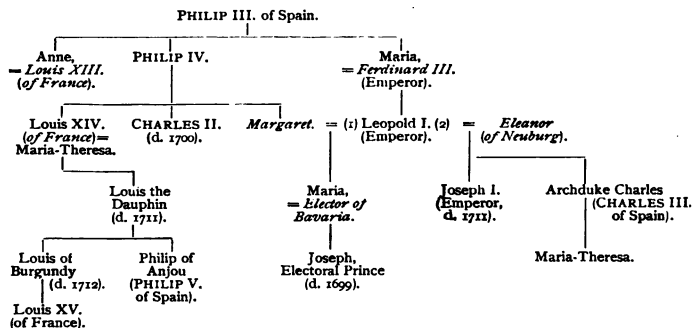
ment. His example, penetrating all French society, froze the whole land into an artificiality of life and manners so costly that it beggared the nation.

**23. Minority of Louis XV.**—Louis XV. being only five years old when his great-grandfather died, the government was placed in the hands of Philip, Duke of Orleans, the nephew of the late king. This prince, whose licentious extravagance was rivalled by that of his worthless minister, the Cardinal Dubois, held the regency for eight years (1715–1723). During that time, the chief event was the rise and bursting of a great bubble—the Mississippi Company, similar to the English South Sea scheme. It was started and directed by a Scotsman, named John Law. The shares rose to twelve hundred per cent. Then came a panic, a crash, and a scene of wide-spread bankruptcy and ruin. In 1723, Louis XV., then aged thirteen, took the reins of power into his own hands.

#### NOTES.

§ 3. **Dragonnades**, persecutions of the Protestants. They were instituted in order to compel the Protestants to renounce their religion; and were named from the *dragons*, who were the chief instrument in carrying out the decrees.

9. **Crown of Spain.** The claims of the rivals may be seen in the following table:—



**23. The English South Sea scheme.** In 1710 a company was formed for the purpose of trading among the South Sea islands. The directors also proposed to redeem the public debt by lending money to the Government at a moderate rate of interest. The overdrawn statements regarding the endless treasure to be found in the islands of the Pacific induced many persons to embark their savings in the concern. A panic ensued, and the company collapsed in 1720.

**SUMMARY.**—The key to Louis's policy lies in his own words: "L'état?—c'est moi."—1685. The Edict of Nantes was revoked. Many thousand Protestant families emigrated. —1683. John Sobieski, King of Poland, saved Vienna from the Turks.—1686. The

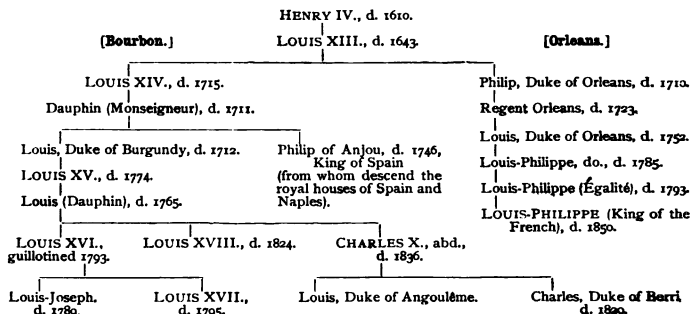
League of Augsburg was formed to check Louis's ambition. William of Orange afterwards became its leader.—1692. The French under Tourville were defeated off Cape La Hogue by the English and the Dutch.—1697. Louis concluded with England, Spain, and Holland the Treaty of Ryswick.—1701. The Grand Alliance was formed to prevent the Bourbons from succeeding to the Spanish throne. The Marlborough campaign in Belgium comprised four English victories: 1704. Battle of Blenheim.—1706. Battle of Ramillies.—1708. Battle of Oudenarde.—1709. Battle of Malplaquet.—1707. The Battle of Almanza, won by the Duke of Berwick, placed the Bourbon, Philip V., on the Spanish throne.—1713. The Treaty of Utrecht was signed.—1714. The Treaty of Rastadt completed the Peace of Utrecht.—1715. Louis XIV. died; he was succeeded by his great-grandson.

### FRENCH KINGS OF THE HOUSE OF BOURBON.

Henry IV. (King of Navarre) A.D. 1589	The Consulate . . . . A.D. 1799-1804
Louis XIII. (the Just) . . . . . 1610	The Empire . . . . . 1804-14
Louis XIV. (the Great) . . . . . 1643	Louis XVIII. . . . . 1814
Louis XV. (the Well-beloved) . . . 1715	Charles X. . . . . 1824-30
Louis XVI. . . . . 1774-92	The Second Revolution . . . 1830
The First Revolution . . . . 1789	ORLEANS BRANCH.
Louis XVII. . . . . 1793-95	Louis-Philippe . . . . . 1830-48
The Republic . . . . . 1792-99	The Third Revolution . . . 1848

### GENEALOGY OF THE BOURBON FAMILY.

#### SECOND TREE.



## CHAPTER III.

*PETER THE GREAT OF RUSSIA, AND CHARLES XII.  
OF SWEDEN.*

**Central Point:** Battle of Pultowa—June 15, 1709 A.D.

**British History:** Reigns of William III.—1689-1702; and Anne—1702-1714 A.D.

1. **Early History of Russia.**—Russia makes a very small figure in the history of Europe, from the time of Ruric, who founded a Norse empire there in the ninth century, to the time of Peter the Great in the seventeenth century. The chief events of the intervening centuries were, the conversion of Vladimir about 986 to the Christianity of the Greek Church; the invasion of the Mongol-Tartars under Jenghis Khan in the thirteenth century; and the extinction of the royal race of Ruric in 1598, in the person of Feodor, last of the Norman czars. The House of Romanoff succeeded, after a few years; its founder being Michael Feodorovitz, the grandfather of Peter the Great.

2. **Peter the Great: 1689 A.D.**—The Russia of our day is the creation, humanly speaking, of Peter, who became sole Czar in the year 1689. His father, who had reigned from 1645 to 1676, had been honoured with the title of the "Good Alexis." In 1682 Peter was crowned along with his half-brother Ivan; but the latter, a deformed weakling, was only a name in the State. Having baffled the ambitious schemes of his half-sister Sophia, a bold and beautiful woman, who acted as Regent, the young Peter, when only seventeen, seized alone the sceptre, which he was destined to wield so well.

3. **Reforms in the Army.**—This tall, rough, head-strong youth set himself first to reform the army, as the right hand of his power. In this task he was lucky enough to have the aid of two skilful officers, Patrick Gordon, a Scotsman, and Lefort, a Swiss, who soon filled his ranks with recruits from Western Europe. The long cumbrous coat was exchanged for a shorter dress. Hair and beards were cropped close; and the Russian



soldiers were soon dressed, armed, and drilled in the European fashion. The navy, too, received much of Peter's attention.



PETER THE GREAT.

We are told that at first he sailed his yacht, built by an old Dutch exile named Brandt, on a lake near his palace. Then he saw the sea at Archangel, and felt the weakness of Russia in having little or no available sea-board. From that moment, the extension of the Russian Empire to the Atlantic and to the Pacific, and if possible also to the Indian Ocean, became the grand aim of Russian statesmanship.

**4. Seizure of Azoff: 1696 A.D.**—Beginning war, therefore, against Turkey in aid of the Poles, he seized Azoff, thus gaining his first success. A plot formed by the Strelitzes against his life—they were a body-guard of nobles organized by Ivan the Terrible (1533-84)—was met by Peter with singular courage, and punished with barbarous cruelty.

**5. Peter in Holland: 1697 A.D.**—He then began his first tour of Europe. Leaving Gordon with some thousand soldiers to support the old noble who acted as Regent, he set out for Holland. There at Saardam (Zaandam) he began to explore the shipping, jumping down into the holds, and running up the rigging amid the jeers of Dutch sailors and street-loungers, by thrashing whom he sometimes refreshed himself. But odder still was his settling down in two rooms and a garret as Pieter Michaeloff, receiving his wages every Saturday night as a common ship-carpenter, and every day boiling his own pot for dinner. At the same time he picked up rope-making and sail-

making, blacksmith's work, and as much surgery as enabled him to draw teeth and to bleed.

**6. Peter in England: 1698 A.D.**—Then he went to England, where William III. received him heartily, and made him a present of a fine yacht. But Peter was not happy until he got the adze in his hand again. Lord Caermarthen was his attendant while he was in England, and many a night the two sat up together drinking brandy and pepper. But no matter how late he sat, Peter rose at four in the morning to his work. He seldom spent more than a quarter of an hour at his meals. Having seen Deptford, Woolwich, and Chatham, the Czar left England for Vienna, to see the soldiers of the Emperor, whose dress and discipline were then the model for all Europe. But after an absence of seventeen months, alarming news called him home. The Strelitzes had rebelled. Peter, hastening to Moscow, found on his arrival there that his faithful Gordon had crushed the revolt. With his own hand the Czar beheaded twenty of the guards in one hour.

**7. Social and Military Reforms.**—Peter then began his social reforms. Dressing himself in a brown frock coat, he insisted on all Russians, except the priests and the peasants, casting off the Asiatic long robe. He laid a tax on beards. He changed the titles and lessened the power of the aristocracy. The Strelitzes were suppressed, and a regular army on the European model took their place (1699). Giving greater freedom to the Russian women, who had previously been shut up as in a Turkish harem, he got up for their amusement evening parties, lasting from four to ten, at which the Russian gentlemen were required to keep strictly sober. Dancing, chess, and draughts were the chief amusements of the evening. He checked the arrogant clergy by tolerating all sects except the Jesuits, and by giving free circulation to the Slavonian Bible.

**8. League against Charles XII. of Sweden: 1700 A.D.**—We now turn to Peter's great rival, Charles XII. of Sweden. Born in 1682, this prince succeeded his father at the age of fifteen (1697). Three years later, Russia, Denmark, and Poland (then ruled by Augustus, Elector of Saxony) formed a league

for the dismemberment of his kingdom. They had yet to learn that the sword was a toy familiar to the hand of the boy-king, who had loved from his earliest days to play at soldiers. Moving swiftly, first on Copenhagen, and then on the Polish army at Riga, Charles rid himself of two out of his three foes; and then he beat the Russians in the great battle of Narva.



CHARLES XII. OF SWEDEN.

**9. Battle of Narva: 1700 A.D.**—A Russian force of eighty thousand men, largely officered by Germans, was besieging Narva, a small town near the Gulf of Livonia, when Charles advanced to its relief with only eight thousand troops. Having battered the Russian camp with his cannon, he poured through the breach his gallant Swedes. A snow-storm just then drove its flakes into the eyes of the Russians, who gave in after three hours of close and desperate fighting. The jealousy with which the Russians looked on their foreign officers, prevented that cordial union which might have saved the camp. The Russians lost five thousand men; the Swedes scarcely twelve hundred. Charles let all his thirty thousand prisoners go free, except a few of the officers.

**10. Conquest of Poland: 1704 A.D.**—Peter was not at the battle. "Ah," said he, when the vexing news came, "these Swedes, I knew, would beat us; but they will soon teach us how to beat them." Charles made use of his victory to invade and

conquer Poland. Three campaigns completed the humiliation of Augustus, and the crown of the deposed monarch was conferred by the conqueror on Stanislaus Leczinski.

**11. Founding of St. Petersburg: 1703 A.D.**—Meanwhile Peter had been straining every nerve to meet the Swedes, and have his revenge for Narva. Melting down the church bells to make new cannon, and drilling his soldiers with incessant activity, he prepared for a great struggle. Nor amid his warlike preparations was he forgetful of social reforms. The building of hospitals, and of linen and paper mills, the introduction of a fine breed of Saxon sheep, and the establishment of the printing press, were among the many boons which his fertile and untiring spirit gave to Russia. The foundation of St. Petersburg dates from this time. The Czar worked his way steadily northward till he secured the possession of the Neva. At the mouth of that river, on a swampy island, he built his new capital. While superintending the work in person, he lived for a while in a wooden hut. It was nothing to him that the cold, and the wet, and the poisonous gas from the marshes, killed thousands of his workmen. In spite of all obstacles, the city arose fair and strong. About the same time Menschikoff, raised from selling pies in the street to be the friend and favourite of the Czar, was employed in founding a very strong fortress on the island of Kronstadt, twenty-one miles from St. Petersburg. Every succeeding Czar has strengthened and enlarged the granite batteries of this great stronghold.

**12.** On all these doings Charles cast a scornful eye. But he had little cause for scorn. The conquest of Ingria, along the southern shore of the Gulf of Finland, still further increased the growing power of the Czar, who made Menschikoff governor of the newly acquired province, conferring upon him at the same time the titles of Field-Marshal and Prince.

**13. Charles invades Russia: 1707 A.D.**—At last Charles turned from his Polish and Saxon wars to invade Russia with eighty thousand veteran troops. It was a fatal step. "Nowhere but at Moscow will I treat with Peter," said the boastful Swede. "Ah," said rough Peter, "my brother wishes



EASTERN EUROPE—WARS OF PETER THE GREAT AND CHARLES XII.

to play the part of Alexander ;—he shall not find a Darius in me.”

14. **Battle of Pultowa: 1709 A.D.**—The plan adopted by Peter was simple and sensible. Laying waste the western provinces, he decoyed Charles into the heart of a hostile, barren land, where frost and famine did their deadly work on the Swedish battalions. The invitation of Mazeppa, prince of the Cossacks, turned the Swedish king from the road to Moscow to the district of the Ukraine ; but Mazeppa’s promises of aid were broken reeds. At last the time came for which Peter had prepared and longed. With an army of twenty-nine thousand

frost-bitten, ragged, hungry men, Charles besieged the small town of Pultowa (Poltava), between the Dnieper and the Donetz. Peter, coming up with sixty thousand fresh troops, poured reinforcements into the town. And then a great battle was fought. Charles, who was suffering from a wound in one of his feet, was carried in a litter to the field. The Czar led the centre of his army, intrusting the wings to his generals Menschikoff and Bauer. The Swedes fought with desperate valour. Oftener than once they broke the Russian lines; but at last, outnumbered and exhausted, they gave way and fled. In two hours the ruin was complete. The litter in which Charles lay was smashed by a round-shot; Peter had a bullet through his hat; Menschikoff had three horses killed under him. The royal Swede rode from the field with a few hundred horse, and hid his diminished head within the Turkish town of Bender. Nine thousand of his men fell on the bloody field. From that day Russia, overshadowing all the East with her giant bulk, has been one of the great Powers of Europe.

**15. War with Turkey: 1711 A.D.**—The Turks were not unwilling to draw the sword against a neighbour so dangerous as Peter. When Charles, therefore, arrived among them, a beaten man thirsting for revenge, they declared war against Russia. The Czar, having marched with forty thousand men to the Pruth in Moldavia, was surrounded by a Turkish host of far greater number. For three days the Russians, formed into a square, maintained a hopeless contest. Then Peter's young wife, the celebrated Catherine Alexina, saved her husband and his troops by sending a present of her jewels to the Turkish vizier. Peace was proposed, the offer was accepted, and a treaty was concluded, greatly to the anger of Charles.

**16. Charles in Turkey: 1711-14 A.D.**—This "Madman of the North," as he has been called, wore out his welcome in Turkey, and would take no hint about returning to his own land. Money was given him to pay his expenses home. He took it, spent it, but would not go. He even armed his servants against the Turkish janissaries who were sent to remove him, and he killed twenty of them with his own sword. Still schem-

ing, and still tasking the generosity of the Turks, he lived on in a sort of state-custody, while Peter stripped Sweden for ever of Ingria, Livonia, and Finland, and the kings of Prussia and Denmark laid violent hands on the Swedish dominions south of the Baltic.

**17. Death of Charles: 1718 A.D.**—Returning in 1714 to Sweden, he spent his last strength in a vain attempt to conquer Norway, during which he was killed by a shot that struck him on the head, at the siege of Friedrichshall (December 1718). Military glory was his one absorbing passion.

**18. Peter's second Journey in Europe: 1716 A.D.**—In 1716 Peter made a second tour of Europe, visiting Stockholm, Amsterdam, Paris, and Berlin. In the Prussian capital, Frederic-William I., who was a kindred spirit, gave him a hearty welcome. Catherine Alexina, his second wife, who had formerly been married to a sergeant of dragoons, accompanied him on this tour. But the news of a plot, in which Alexis, his son by his divorced wife Eudokia, had some share, recalled him to Russia. The unhappy young man was tried for his life, and condemned; but he died mysteriously in prison (1718). He is believed to have been executed.

**19. Death of Peter: 1725 A.D.**—Peter's last military exploit was an unsuccessful expedition to Persia (1722), undertaken on pretence of supporting the rightful Shah against a usurper, but in reality with a view to secure a footing on the Caspian shores. This greatest of the Czars died January 28, 1725, of fever, caught by wading knee-deep in lake Ladoga, to aid in getting off a boat, which had stuck on the rocks.

**20. His Character.**—The character of Peter may best be given in the words of Voltaire: "He gave a polish to his people, and was himself a savage; he taught them the art of war, of which he was himself ignorant; from the sight of a small boat on the river Moskwa he created a powerful fleet; he made himself an expert and active shipwright, sailor, pilot, and commander; he changed the manners, customs, and laws of the Russians, and lives in their memory as the 'Father of his country.'" In spite of his savagery and coarseness, the name

“Great” is fairly due to him, for his foresight and energy moulded a mass of rugged nobles and crouching serfs into the great nation of the Russians. According to an able Russian historian, Russia would have been converted into a European Power even without Peter. What Peter did was to help forward and hasten the movement in a direction that had been already indicated. “The nation,” he adds, “which created Peter may well be proud of that hero, who was, as it were, the product of the meeting of the Russian national spirit with the general culture of the human race.”

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#### NOTES.

§ 10. Stanislaus Leczinski. After the defeat of Charles XII. at Pultowa, Augustus again occupied the throne. Stanislaus was, however, elected King of Poland in 1733; but in 1736 he withdrew to France, where he died in 1766.

13. A Darius. Darius, King of Persia in the fourth century B.C., was conquered by Alexander the Great; and with him the Persian monarchy came to an end. When he asked for peace, Alexander replied that he could have it only by owning him to be the ruler of Asia.

14. The Cossacks, a name given originally to the warlike inhabitants of the Ukraine, or Little Russia. Since the seventeenth century they have enjoyed various privileges. They pay no taxes; but, instead, they are required to serve in time of war.

19. Shah, the title of the ruler of Persia.

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**SUMMARY.**—1689. Peter the Great was crowned along with his brother Ivan: Peter soon ruled alone. He introduced reforms into the army and navy.—1696. He took Azoff from the Turks.—1697. He worked as a common ship-carpenter at Saardam, in Holland.—1698. He visited the great dockyards of England.—1700. Russia, along with Denmark and Poland, formed a league against Charles of Sweden.—1700. The Swedes defeated the Russians at Narva.—1704. Poland was conquered by Charles.—1703. Peter built his new capital of St. Petersburg at the mouth of the Neva.—1707. Charles invaded Russia with 80,000 troops.—1709. He was defeated in the Battle of Pultowa, and fled to Bender.—1711. Peter made a fruitless invasion of Turkey.—1711. In the absence of Charles he stripped Sweden of Ingria, Livonia, and Finland.—1718. Charles was killed at Friedrichshall.—1716. Peter made a second tour of Europe.—1725. He died from an attack of fever.

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#### SOVEREIGNS OF SWEDEN.

Charles X.....	A.D. 1654	Gustavus Adolphus IV.....	A.D. 1792
Charles XI.....	1660	Charles XIII.....	1809
Charles XII.....	1697	Charles (John) XIV., Berna- dotte.....	1818
Ulrica Eleanora.....	1719	Oscar I.....	1844
Frederic I. (her husband).....	1741	Charles XV.....	1859
Adolphus Frederic.....	1751	Oscar II.....	1872
Gustavus Adolphus III.....	1771		



## SOVEREIGNS OF RUSSIA.

Peter the Great.....	A.D. 1689	Catherine II.....	A.D. 1762
Catherine I.....	1725	Paul.....	1796
Peter II.....	1727	Alexander I.....	1801
Anno.....	1730	Nicholas.....	1825
Ivan VI.....	1740	Alexander II.....	1855
Elizabeth.....	1741	Alexander III.....	1881
Peter III.....	1762		

## CHAPTER IV.

*FREDERIC II. (THE GREAT) OF PRUSSIA.*

Central Point: the Campaign of 1757 A.D.

British History: Reigns of George II.—1727–1760; and George III.—1760–1820 A.D.

1. **Rise of the Prussian Kingdom.**—While Henry VIII. sat on the English throne, the Electors of Brandenburg added to their dominions the dukedom of Prussia, under Polish suzerainty (1524). Frederic-William, the “Great Elector,” acquired Halberstadt and Minden by the Treaty of Westphalia (1648). In 1657 the same active prince flung off the yoke of Poland; and, some years later, he obtained possession of Magdeburg. So, with gradually widening boundaries, Prussia grew to be a kingdom, the first year of the eighteenth century marking the change of the last elector, Frederic III., into the first king, Frederic I.

2. **Early Life of Frederic the Great.**—Third on the list of Prussian kings stands the name of the most renowned in the royal roll—Frederic the Great. He was born in 1712. His father was Frederic-William I., and his mother was Sophia-Dorothea of Hanover. Exposed during childhood and youth to the fury of his savage father, who seems to have cared little for any one except his giant guardsmen, young Frederic grew up amid hardships such as princes seldom suffer. He learned to love his mother; but it is not wonderful that he bitterly hated his other parent. At last, weary with being kicked,

raved at, and fed on bread and water, the prince ran away; and, when he was caught, he was saved from the death of a deserter only by the pleading of the Emperor of Austria.

3. Having married a German princess in 1733, he spent the six years previous to his accession quietly at Rheinsberg—playing billiards, scribbling books, and writing letters to Voltaire and other literary friends. The opinions of the brilliant French infidel had no small share in moulding the character of Frederic.

4. **His Accession : 1740 A.D.**—The death of old Frederic-William in 1740 raised his son to the throne of Prussia. At once he began to realize the darling dream of his unhappy boyhood—to be a great soldier. Plenty of money, and a fine, well-drilled army, organized by his father, were ready to his hand. He took them, and began a war.

5. **The Pragmatic Sanction.**—Nearly thirty years before, a law, called the “Pragmatic Sanction,” had been passed by the Emperor Charles VI. By this he decreed that, if he left no son, his dominions should descend to his daughter. One by one—in some cases with trouble and delay—the great European Powers had been induced to consent to this arrangement. And now, on his death (October 1740), his daughter Maria-Theresa became mistress of the hereditary dominions of the House of Austria.

6. **Silesia ceded to Frederic : 1742 A.D.**—At once a rapacious host rose around the hapless princess, greedy to despoil her of her realms. Foremost among these was Frederic of Prussia, who pounced upon Silesia, claiming it as an old territory of the house of Brandenburg. Several victories in 1741 and 1742 left him master of the coveted lands. Maria-Theresa, dreading this formidable soldier, and anxious to bend all her energies against her other foes, made over to him, by the Treaty of Breslau, the full sovereignty of Silesia.

7. **Success of Maria-Theresa.**—The other foes of Maria-Theresa were many; but chief among them were the Elector of Bavaria, who claimed all the Austrian possessions, and the King of France, who helped the Elector, in utter contempt of

the Pragmatic Sanction, which he himself had guaranteed. Her only friend was Great Britain. When the troops of Bavaria and France had advanced in 1741 within a few leagues of Vienna, the princess fled to Pressburg, and flung herself on the chivalry of the brave Hungarians. When her sorrowful words, spoken in Latin, as she stood in her mourning dress, with her little son nestling in her bosom, fell on their ears—"Abandoned by my friends, persecuted by my enemies, and attacked by my nearest relations, I have no resource but in your fidelity and valour"—the hall grew bright with flashing swords; and "We will die for Maria-Theresa!" echoed from its ancient roof. So, with Hungarian steel bristling in her defence, and British gold pouring into her coffers, and with Frederic, bought off by the cession of Silesia, standing aloof, the cause of the queen began to prosper. The French, who held Prague, were forced to retreat in the depth of a severe winter. A few months later, they suffered defeat from the British and Hanoverians under King George II. at Dettingen (1743). In the meantime the Elector of Bavaria—now the Emperor Charles VII.—took refuge in Frankfort-on-the-Main.

8. **Francis I. Emperor: 1745 A.D.**—But this sudden turn in the tide of war brought Frederic again into the field. Fearful that in the flush of victory the Queen of Hungary might wrest the newly-won Silesia from him, he formed a secret alliance with France and the emperor. In accordance with this alliance, he invaded Bohemia in 1744, but was forced to leave it before the end of the year. The death of the Emperor, which happened early in 1745, relieved Maria-Theresa from a formidable foe, and excited new hopes in her breast that her husband, the Grand Duke of Tuscany, might be elected to fill the vacant imperial throne. Notwithstanding the defeat of her allies under the Duke of Cumberland at Fontenoy, these hopes were realized; and Francis I. became emperor. Frederic, though victorious in the campaign of 1745, was glad to sheathe the sword; and by the Treaty of Dresden, which closed the war in Germany, he acknowledged the husband of Maria-Theresa as head of the empire.

**9. Treaty of Aix-la-Chapelle: 1748 A.D.**—After the Peace of Dresden, the struggle was continued in the Netherlands and in Italy between the houses of Bourbon and Austria, until a treaty, concluded at Aix-la-Chapelle, gave rest for a while to worn-out Europe. This treaty confirmed in general the arrangements made by those of Westphalia, Nimwegen, Ryswick, and Utrecht; secured the possession of Silesia to Prussia; and made over to Don Philip of Spain, under certain conditions, Naples, Parma, and other Italian States.

**10. An Interval of Peace.**—Eight years of peace followed. This breathing-space was devoted by Frederic to the good of Prussia. He drew up the code of laws which bears his name. He travelled through many parts of his kingdom, doing what he could for tillage, trade, and manufactures. He built palaces in Berlin and Potsdam; and he spent much time in writing books in French. Of these works the most considerable are his "Memoirs of the House of Brandenburg," and his poem on the "Art of War." But he never forgot that he was a soldier. A large portion of his revenue went to maintain his army, which he had lately raised to one hundred and sixty thousand men. These soldiers, officered with care and incessantly drilled, were lodged in barracks enriched with the most costly and beautiful ornaments of architecture.

**11. The Seven Years' War: 1756-63 A.D.**—Both in India and in America, the interests of France and Great Britain had long been clashing. Open war was at last declared. Already blood had been spilled in the colonies; but it was not until 1756 that the German King of England, trembling for the safety of his beloved Hanover, formed an alliance with Frederic of Prussia, and prepared for a stern struggle. The great Powers of Europe ranged themselves on the one side or on the other. Austria, glad to see the tie between France and Prussia at last broken, took arms in the hope of recovering Silesia. Thus Austria, France, Russia, Saxony, Sweden, and Poland were arrayed against Prussia and England; and the great Seven Years' War began. The Colonial War between France and Great Britain, which interweaves itself with the Seven Years' War, lies be-

yond our scope. We shall trace the story of the war as it affected Continental Europe only.

**12. First Campaign—Capture of Dresden : 1756 A.D.**—Frederic began the war. At the head of seventy thousand men he invaded Saxony, moving his troops by converging roads toward Dresden, the great centre of attack. He defeated the Austrians at Lowositz. Then having seized the archives of Dresden, and broken open the cabinet in which the State papers were kept, he read the whole story of the secret plot laid for the partition of Prussia. These papers he published, in order to defend the step he had taken.

**13. Second Campaign : 1757 A.D.—Prague : Kolin.**—The second campaign—greatest of the seven—began with the invasion of Bohemia by Frederic and his Prussians. Near Prague he won a great battle over the Austrians, and then besieged the city. But the advance of the Austrian Marshal Daun, in attacking whose intrenched camp at Kolin Frederic sustained his first great defeat, saved the Bohemian capital. A shower of misfortunes then seemed to burst over the head of the Prussian king. Russians broke through his eastern frontier ; Swedes in Pomerania marched on Berlin ; his friends the British were driven in disgrace from Hanover by the French, who were rapidly advancing into Saxony. In the midst of all, his mother died. He had loved her well, and in his utter despair suicide seemed his only refuge from a crowd of miseries. Then came the turn of the tide. The Russian empress took ill, and her troops were recalled. That was one foe the less. Dashing suddenly into Saxony with only twenty-two thousand men, he faced a French and Austrian army twice the size of his own, at the village of Rossbach.

**14. Battle of Rossbach.**—About eleven o'clock in the morning of a winter day (November 5), the allied armies advanced, exulting in their strength, and confident of victory. Frederic, without attracting the notice of the enemy, moved his troops into a new position. Their march was concealed by the broken ground ; and when, later in the day, the allies moved to the attack, they were met and broken into huddled crowds by an



THE SEVEN YEARS' WAR.

avalanche of horses, men, and cannon-shot, pouring with terrific speed and force into their lines, which were already disordered by the hurry of their advance. In half an hour, the day was decided. While Frederic lost only a few hundred men, nearly nine thousand of the foe were killed, wounded, or made prisoners.

**15. Battle of Leuthen.**—Just a month later (December 5), Frederic defeated the Austrians in the great Battle of Leuthen, or Lissa, in Silesia. His tactics were here the same as at Rossbach. Feigning to attack their right wing, he suddenly concentrated a great force, which he had quietly mustered behind the hills,

on their weakened left, and swept it before him. Instead of returning the move, the Austrian general moved up the right wing to support the broken left. But he was too late ; and the whole Austrian force was driven from the field, in spite of their gallant stand, maintained for a full hour among the houses of Leuthen. The action lasted from one to four in the day. The Austrians lost in killed and wounded twelve thousand men ; the Prussian loss was at least five thousand. The immediate results of the victory were the re-capture of Silesia, which had been overrun by the Austrians, and the exaltation of Frederic to the greatest fame. London was a blaze of illumination in his honour, and the British Parliament voted him a subsidy of £670,000.

**16. Third Campaign : 1758 A.D.—Crefeld : Zorndorf.**—Early in the third campaign, an army of English and Hanoverians, under the Duke of Brunswick, drove the French across the Rhine, and defeated them at Crefeld. Later in the year, Frederic inflicted a terrible defeat on the Russians at Zorndorf in Brandenburg. From nine in the morning till seven in the evening, the Russians, formed into a square, held their ground under incessant discharges of artillery, followed by rapid charges of horse and foot. Twenty-one thousand Russians were slain on this fatal field. Still later in the season, Count Daun, the leader of the Austrians, broke the right wing of Frederic's army at Hochkirch in Saxony ; but on the whole the cause of the Prussian king was triumphant in the campaign. He still held Silesia ; and the French were driven from Germany.

**17. Fourth Campaign : 1759 A.D.—Minden : Kunersdorf.**—Blow after blow fell heavily on Frederic in the fourth year of the war. It is true that his ally, Ferdinand of Brunswick, defeated the French in the Battle of Minden (August 1), thus saving the Electorate of Hanover from a second conquest. But the Prussian king himself, meeting the Russians at Kunersdorf in Brandenburg, was driven from the field with the loss of eighteen thousand men. Dresden was taken and held by the Austrians. An army of nearly twenty thousand Prussians, hemmed in by Austrian bayonets among the passes of Bohemia, was forced to surrender at discretion to Marshal Daun.

**18. Fifth Campaign : 1760 A.D.—Siege of Dresden.**—After some vain attempts at negotiation, the war continued with increased bitterness. Frederic was desperate. He stood at bay before a gigantic host of two hundred thousand men ; while all his efforts could not muster half that number. Yet he was victorious, gaining strength from the very hopelessness of his cause. The defeat and capture of his general Fouqué in Silesia roused him to action. Drawing off Daun by a pretended march into Silesia, he turned suddenly on Dresden. For many days a storm of cannon-shot poured on that city, crumbling some of its finest buildings into dust. But the return of Daun, who quickly perceived the false move he had made, obliged Frederic to abandon the siege.

**19. Battles of Liegnitz and Torgau.**—Yet he soon made up for this temporary check. By his victory at Liegnitz, when three Austrian generals lay around his camp, sure now that they had the lion in their toils, he prevented the union of the Russian and Austrian forces. Then, enraged by the pillage of Berlin, into which the Russians and Austrians had made a hasty dash, he followed up his success by an attack on the camp of Daun, who had intrenched himself strongly at Torgau on the Elbe. Broken three times by the fire of two hundred Austrian cannon, the Prussian troops struggled bravely up to the batteries, took them, and drove the defenders in disorder across the river. Darkness alone saved the Austrians from annihilation. The immediate result of this great victory was the recovery by Frederic of all Saxony except Dresden. Stricken with sudden fear, all his enemies shrank away from Prussia. This year is also marked by the formation of a secret treaty, called the "Family Compact," formed between the Bourbons of France and those of Spain.

**20. Sixth Campaign : 1761 A.D.**—The war dragged on through its sixth campaign. The King of Prussia, thoroughly exhausted by his enormous efforts, remained in a strong camp in the heart of Silesia, watching his foes, but able to do no more. Again, we are told, the thought of suicide crossed his mind.

**21. Seventh Campaign : 1762 A.D.**—A death saved him.



Elizabeth of Russia died on the 5th of January 1762; and her successor, Peter III., Frederic's warm admirer and friend, not only made peace, but sent him aid. The example set by Russia was followed by Sweden. Then came the Peace of Paris, concluded by Great Britain, France, and Spain.

**22. Peace of Hubertsburg: 1763 A.D.**—Austria and Prussia now confronted each other alone. The war was dragged on through another campaign, in the course of which Frederic gained another victory over General Daun. Then he concluded with Austria the Peace of Hubertsburg, which left the face of Germany on the whole unchanged. Frederic still held the small province of Silesia, for the sake of which the life-blood of more than a million had been poured out like water. So ended the great Seven Years' War, of which the Prussian king was the central figure, and in which he won imperishable renown as a gallant soldier and a daring tactician.

**23.** Frederic then set himself to repair, as far as he could, the terrible mischief done by the war. He gave corn for food and seed to the starving people, and rebuilt the houses that had been burned. Silesia was freed from the payment of all taxes for six years, and other districts received the same boon for a shorter time. Rewards to his living soldiers, and pensions to the widows and children of the dead were bestowed with no niggard hand. In his attempts to revive the drooping commerce and increase the revenue of Prussia, he made some sad mistakes, of which perhaps the worst was the debasement of the coinage. Great as he was in military affairs, he was no political economist. Amid all his plans and works of peace, he maintained a great army of one hundred and sixty thousand men.

**24. Partition of Poland: 1772 A.D.**—Frederic's share in the great crime of the eighteenth century—the partition of Poland—must now be noticed. It is said that the wicked plot was hatched in the brain of the great Prussian king; but there is reason to believe that it was an old design, dating as far back as 1710, in the days of Frederic I. A kingdom, “the eldest born of the European family,” bright with fair fields, broad rivers, and a genial sky, and filled with a valiant but very restless

people, lay overshadowed by three giants—Russia, Prussia, and Austria. The curse of discord filled the land with blood, and tears, and failing strength. When great assemblies of her armed knights met to elect their king, or to transact other State business, they often returned home without having passed a single act, paralyzed by the strange power of a *veto*, which they all possessed, and by which a single man could dissolve the assembly. Seeing her weakness and her broken heart, the three great Powers stooped together and with felon hands tore away one-third of her dominion. Frederic thus gained Polish-Prussia as far as to the Netz, except Dantzic and Thorn. Catherine II. of Russia, and Maria-Theresa, whose conscience stung her sorely before she joined in the robbery, had each a share of the unrighteous spoil. Stanislaus II. was then King of Poland.

**25. Extinction of Poland: 1795: 1832 A.D.** — Twenty-two years later, there was a great uprising of the brave Poles under Kosciusko. But might was stronger than right. Stanislaus resigned his crown; and the second and final partition of Poland took place. In 1832, while Britain was dreaming of Parliamentary Reform, and France was still throbbing with the pangs of her second Revolution, the old kingdom of Poland was absorbed in the Russian Empire by an edict of the Czar.

**26. Latest Acts.**—In 1778 the emperor formed a design of partitioning Bavaria. But here Frederic interfered on the weaker side, and the evil was averted. Another attempt on Bavaria was thwarted by the league of the German princes, which was concluded chiefly at the instance of Frederic. His last great public act was the conclusion of a commercial treaty with the United States of America in 1786.

**27. Death of Frederic: 1786 A.D.**—Gout and asthma, ending in dropsy, brought Frederic to his death-bed, in the seventy-fifth year of his age. He had reigned nearly forty-seven years. He was a great soldier, of daring courage in battle, of quick and fertile genius in difficulty, of most elastic spirit in the hour of depression and dismay. But, like all men of inordinate ambition, he cared nothing for the feelings of others. Blood he shed in torrents, yet the “red rain” seemed never to cost him

a thought. When it is added that he was a hater of women and a scoffer at religion, we can see that Frederic, with all his brilliant fame, was not a lovable man. Yet Carlyle says of him: "He managed *not* to be a liar and a charlatan as his century was;" and on that ground he thought him entitled to be called "The Great."

28. **Death of Maria-Theresa: 1780 A.D.**—The name of Maria-Theresa has often occurred in the story of Frederic's reign. When her husband, Francis I., died in 1763, her son Joseph was raised to the imperial throne. Still holding the reins of power, she continued to rule until her death in 1780. Among the benefits which she gave to her subjects, the checking of the Inquisition and the suppression of the Jesuits were not the least. There are few names more honoured in the long roll of illustrious women than that of this empress-queen.

#### NOTES.

§ 1. **Suzerainty**, feudal authority or overlordship.

5. **Pragmatic Sanction.** The term *Sanctio pragmatica* was applied by the Romans to a decree of the State relating to any one of the Roman provinces. In modern history it is applied to an ordinance of a sovereign fixing the succession in a certain line. There are four "Pragmatic Sanctions" in modern history:—(1.) A law passed by Charles VII. of France in 1438, defending the Gallic Church from certain interferences of the Pope; (2.) A decree of the German Diet in 1439; (3.) That of the Emperor Charles VI. here noticed; (4.) That by which Charles III. of Spain gave up Naples to his third son in 1759.

7. **Under King George the Second.** This was the last occasion on which a British sovereign led an army in person.

8. **Duke of Cumberland**, second son of George II. About the same time he led the British royal troops against Prince Charles-Edward, the Pretender, whom he finally defeated at Culloden Moor in 1746.

19. **Family Compact**, a league of members or branches of one royal family. Louis XV. of France, Charles III. of Spain, and Ferdinand of Naples, were all descended from Louis XIV. of France.

24. **Veto**, power to reject a proposal. Literally, *I forbid* (Latin).

25. **Kosciusko**, Thaddeus. He was in America during the War of Independence, and acted as aide-de-camp to Washington. He was made Generalissimo of the national Polish army; died 1817.

**SUMMARY.**—The duchy of Brandenburg grew into the kingdom of Prussia.—1740. On the death of Frederic-William I., his son, Frederic the Great, came to the Prussian throne.—1742. He seized Silesia from Maria-Theresa of Austria, who was befriended by England and Hungary.—1745. Maria-Theresa's husband, the Grand Duke of Tuscany, became emperor.—1748. A peace between the houses of Bourbon and Austria was concluded at Aix-la-Chapelle.—1756–63. The Seven Years' War was carried on on the continent of Europe; it comprised seven campaigns:—(1.) 1756. Dresden was taken by Frederic.—(2.) 1757. Frederic was victorious over the Austrians at Prague, but was defeated at Kolin. He afterwards won the battles of Rossbach and Leuthen.—(3.) 1758.

The French were defeated at Crefeld, and the Russians at Zorndorf.—(4.) 1759. At Minden the French were defeated; but the Prussians were driven from the field of Kunersdorf.—(5.) 1760. Frederic besieged Dresden, and won victories at Liegnitz and Torgau.—(6.) 1761. Frederic was unable to take an active part in this campaign.—(7.) 1762. Another victory was gained over the Austrians.—1763. The Peace of Hubertsburg was concluded.—1772. The partition of Poland among Austria, Prussia, and Russia was decided upon.—1795: 1832. The kingdom of Poland was swept away.

### DUKES AND KINGS OF PRUSSIA.

DUKES.		KINGS.	
John-Sigismund.....	A.D. 1618	Frederic I., crowned.....	A.D. 1701
George-William.....	1619	Frederic-William I.....	1713
Frederic-William (the Great } Elector).....	1640	Frederic II. (the Great).....	1740
Frederic.....	1688	Frederic-William II.....	1786
		Frederic-William III.....	1797
		Frederic-William IV.....	1840
		William I.....	1861

### EMPEROR OF GERMANY.

William I., crowned.....1871 A.D.

## CHAPTER V.

### *LIFE IN FRANCE UNDER LOUIS XIV.*

1. **The Nobility humbled.**—It was the great aim of Louis XIV. to centralize all power in himself. He therefore lost no opportunity of humbling the French nobility. Selecting his chief ministers from the plebeian ranks, he drove many of the lower and poorer nobles, who found their chance of making a name and living by politics gone, to become merchants and shopkeepers. He whose pride could not stoop to such a fall, took mask and pistol and turned "Knight of Labour," or in plain English, a highway robber. But the army was the chief refuge for the cadets of noble houses, and to this they flocked in spite of the humiliations which awaited them there. The army then became the true aristocracy; and the haughtiest duke in the realm, who could count back his ancestors for centuries, had to give place to the youngest marshal of France.

2. **The Army.**—This army was the grand instrument of

Louis's despotism. There was no disputing his will, for the soldiers were always at hand. They had been trained and drilled from early boyhood according to the military system of Gustavus Adolphus. For the first time, French soldiers were armed, clothed, and accoutred on a uniform plan regulated by the king. From him alone could promotion come; his royal hand signed every commission. To him they were taught to look for every command and every reward. All the glory they won was for him. While they were young and strong, he drilled them, petted them, and made them the great men of France; and when their beards grew gray, or they left a limb on some bloody field, a splendid royal hospital (*Hôtel des Invalides*) stood ready to receive them in their decay.

3. **The Police.**—The French police system was established by Louis, who found the need of spreading his spies into every corner of the land. Nothing could happen beside the meanest hearth without the knowledge of the police, who sent up constant reports to headquarters. The Church lands and livings were often given by this despot to laymen; and many a rich abbey had for its owner some fair favourite of the king or of his courtiers. Unblushingly and openly the public offices were sold—sometimes were even put up to auction. At Rennes, for example, within fourteen years the king sold, besides all the seats in the Civic Tribunal, twenty-seven other posts, taking money even for the appointment of a house-porter.

4. **Oppressive Taxation.**—The lower orders groaned under fearful burdens and led a very wretched life. It was this evil that grew into the tornado of revolution a hundred years later. The vassal owed to the king, as his superior, eight very heavy duties. One of these was the obligation to work on the public roads for a certain number of days every year. There was a capitation tax, too, imposed by Louis XIV., which fell most heavily on the vassals. But of all the imposts, that which excited the greatest bitterness of spirit was the salt-tax. In the fourteenth century, the trade in this necessary of life began to be made a royal monopoly. Four times a year, every householder was obliged, whether he would or not, to buy as much

salt as was determined by the authorities to be needful for the use of his family. The natural result of such oppression was to demoralize the lower orders. Smuggling became a common trade; and the passion for it grew so strong that whole regiments deserted in order to follow the dishonest occupation.

5. **Dissolute Court Life.**—But the king and his court cared little for the miserable state of the common people. Their business was to enjoy life as brilliantly as possible. The humiliation of the poorer nobles has been already noticed. That of the rich ones was yet more degrading, because it was voluntary. The court was an irresistible magnet, which drew them from their castles and country mansions among the woods of Auvergne, Bretagne, and Provence. They plunged into the whirlpool of fashion and folly. Gambling was carried on to an incredible extent. It was thought no shame, but the best fun in the world, to cheat at cards. Royal dukes did it, and were esteemed for their gentlemanly skill in swindling: why, then, should not men and women of meaner station follow their example? Faithful husbands and wives were held up to mockery in the theatre of the time; and therefore husbands and wives who loved each other and were true became scarce at the French court. Life was a constant round of dressing, driving, gambling, and licentiousness; to pay the heavy cost of which, all over France ancestral trees were cut down, fair acres were loaded with debt or brought to the hammer, while the poor tenantry were squeezed dry, and left hopeless and heart-broken. The young nobles, finding common society pall on their depraved taste, invited to their tables forgers and highwaymen, whose anecdotes—highly flavoured with crime—delighted them immensely. Then, to get money, the meanest and most cruel things were done. Among such expedients, the raking up of forgotten penalties and unclaimed forfeitures was adopted by crowds of needy lords and ladies, who hunted all the country over in search of victims.

6. **Figure of Louis.**—The central figure of the brilliant, giddy, wicked throng, was of course the absurdly affected man

who wore the crown. His strut and swagger were copied on every side, and the most outrageous flattery was poured on him. One gravely called him "a visible miracle." A lady writing of him said, "That even while playing at billiards, he preserved the air and deportment of the master of the world." This and much more he received merely as his due, for his vanity was inordinate. We read of him singing the hymns written in his praise by some flattering lyricist, and weeping with delight at the sound of his own sweet voice.

7. **His Extravagance.**—Louis's expenditure was on a most extravagant scale. His wars cost the country enormous sums, and his home-life was scarcely less expensive. We find him in 1670, on his way to the theatre of war in the Low Countries, travelling in a glass coach. Rich furniture was sent on before him, so that when he stopped he might be lodged in royal style. Every night there was a *fête*, or mask-ball, with a grand display of fire-works. It seemed as if he could not live a week without these excitements.

8. **Versailles.**—His palace of Versailles swallowed up incalculable sums of money. The little hunting-lodge of Louis XIII. could not hold the great monarch; so he called his architects and his gardeners together, and set them to work on a mansion worthy of his splendour. The principal feature of the huge building, which cost unknown millions, is its cold monotonous formality. Magnificent, but not beautiful, it has been well called a type of the age that produced it. The age was intensely artificial; and in the far-stretching Ionic colonnades,—the closely shaven lawns,—the symmetrical terraces, and wide straight walks which divide the trim parterres,—the lakes, cascades, and fountains, resembling anything but Nature,—the even rows of stately elm-trees which border the avenues, and the mathematically correct lines of the palace itself, the artificial seems to have reached its perfection. Statues and vases in great profusion adorn both palace and gardens.

9. **Dress of the Time.**—The dress of Louis may be taken as a specimen of the national costume of the time. A great periwig, full of powder, rose high above his forehead, and flowed in

floury ringlets on his shoulders and back. Round his neck was a lace cravat, with embroidered ends hanging on the breast. Puffed cambric sleeves with hanging ruffles at the wrist came out from below the large wide cuffs of his coat, which was broad-skirted and of velvet. A long waistcoat of rich brocade fell half-way down over his knee-breeches of satin. Tightly fitting silk stockings, and high shoes with silver buckles and red heels, completed his dress. A gold-headed cane, a diamond-hilted small-sword, and a jewelled snuff-box were essential parts of a fine gentleman's equipment. The little three-cornered cocked hat was seldom perched on the top of the wig, but was generally carried under the arm. The ladies carried fans, wore curls, powder, and necklaces, and contrived to spend at least as much time and money on their dress as did their admirers.

**10. Literary Men.**—The great brilliancy of the court of Louis XIV. was due to the cluster of wits and literary men whom he gathered around him. Corneille and Racine, the tragedians; Molière and Régnard, the comedians; Boileau and La Fontaine, the poets; Descartes and Pascal, the philosophers; Bossuet and Arnauld, the divines;—all gave lustre to his reign. With such men he lived in close intimacy; and thus, too, he struck a blow at the old nobility, for this aristocracy of talent, of which he made so much, was drawn almost altogether from the ranks of the people. The writings of these great stars of French literature bear the stamp of the age. They are highly polished and have a stately grace; but they were written by men who breathed an atmosphere of splendid artificiality; and they lack, in consequence, that “touch of Nature” which “makes the whole world kin.” They were not written for the whole world, but for the favoured few who wore ruffles and brocade. Dryden and Pope, who got their inspiration from Paris, are the best examples in English literature of a similar style.

**11. Influence of Woman.**—The influence of the French ladies on the political changes of the nation was an important feature of the age. The ascendancy which such favourites as Montespan and Maintenon gained over the mind of Louis, caused them to be courted by all applicants for royal favour; and in that age



of king-worship, who did not look eagerly for the sunshine of the royal countenance? The boudoir usurped the functions of the cabinet; grave secrets of State were revealed, and weighty strokes of policy discussed, beneath silken curtains, amid guitars and flowers and tambour-work.

12. **Duelling.**—The duel, unhappily, still prevailed to a great extent in France, though the evil had certainly grown less. At one time, soon after the well-known cartel of defiance which Francis I. sent to the Emperor Charles V., duels were alarmingly common. A word or a look often cost a life; and the loss to the country was as great almost as the drain of a bloody war. Under Louis XIV., “the code of honour,” as it was called, was very formally laid down and punctiliously observed; and the cold stateliness of the proceedings had the good effect of cooling down the fierce brutality which had often marked earlier duels. But still the French gentlemen, with all their foppery, were high-spirited and brave: even the ice of Louis’s ceremonials could not freeze their valour.

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#### NOTES.

- § 1. **Marshal**, the highest rank of French military officers.
- 2. **Hôtel des Invalides**. Founded by Louis XIV. in 1670; capable of accommodating five thousand persons.
- 4. **Capitation tax**, a tax levied on all persons, or on each *head* of the population. (Lat. *caput*, a head.)
- Monopoly**, the exclusive right to deal in a particular commodity. (Gr. *monos*, alone; *póleo*, I sell.)
- 8. **Ionic colonnades**, ranges of Ionic columns. The Ionic is one of the styles of ancient Greek architecture—the others being the Doric and the Corinthian. It is distinguished by its slender fluted columns, and by the ram’s-horn ornamentation at the head of the column.

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**SUMMARY.**—Louis humbled the nobility of France, and raised the standing of the army. A police system was founded; spies were spread over the whole land. Church livings were often bestowed on laymen: public offices were openly sold. The lower orders were very heavily taxed: they groaned under oppressive burdens. The court life was very dissolute: the reckless expenditure of the nobles impoverished the country. Louis was extravagant both in his wars and in his home life. He built Versailles Palace, a magnificent building, but stiff and artificial. He gathered around him a number of wits and literary men, whose writings are polished and graceful, but betray a want of naturalness. Ladies at this time exercised a great influence in political affairs. The practice of duelling was very common.

## GREAT NAMES OF THE SEVENTH PERIOD.

**DESCARTES (RÉNE).**—Born in Touraine, 1596—a famous philosopher and mathematician—wrote “Principles of Philosophy,” and “Meditations”—his “Discourse on Method” gave a new current to subsequent philosophical speculation—died 1650.

**PASCAL (BLAISE).**—Born in Auvergne, 1623—a noted mathematician and theologian—invented a calculating machine, and wrote a work on geometry—author of “Thoughts on Religion,” and of the famous “Provincial Letters,” against the Jesuits—died 1662.

**REMBRANDT (or VAN RHYN).**—Born at Leyden, 1606—greatest painter of the Dutch school—a master of colour and of *chiaro-oscuro* (light and shade)—there are extant 360 marvellous etchings by him—died 1669.

**MOLIÈRE (assumed name of JEAN BAPTISTE POQUELIN).**—Born at Paris, 1622—a distinguished French dramatist—also an actor—his first play, “L’Etourdi,” produced in 1653—among his many works “Le Misanthrope,” “Le Tartuffe,” “Le Bourgeois Gentilhomme,” may be named—died 1673.

**MILTON (JOHN).**—Born in Bread Street, London, 1608—greatest modern epic poet—Latin secretary under Cromwell—chief works, “Paradise Lost,” and “Paradise Regained”—important minor poems, “Samson Agonistes,” “L’Allegro,” “Il Penseroso,” “Comus,” and “Lycidas”—chief prose works, “History of England,” and the “Areopagitica,” a plea for the liberty of the press—died 1674.

**CALDERON (PEDRO).**—Born of noble parents at Madrid, 1600—a great Spanish dramatist—wrote about 500 pieces—like De Vega a soldier in youth—entered the Church at the age of 52—then devoted his pen to writing “Autos Sacramentales,” or sacred plays (like the Early English Mysteries)—died 1683.

**CORNEILLE (PIERRE).**—Born at Rouen, 1606—a great French dramatist—practised for some time as an advocate—made his fame by his tragedy of the “Cid”—other great works “Horace,” and “Cinna,” produced in 1639—died in 1684, aged 78.

**ARNAULD (ANTOINE).**—Born at Paris, 1612—was a warm supporter of the Jansenists—for his opposition to the Jesuits, against whom he wrote many works, he was expelled from the College of the Sorbonne at Paris—went to live in Brussels, where he died in 1694.

**LA FONTAINE (JEAN).**—Born in 1621 at Château-Thierry, near Paris—a poet and fabulist—member of the French Academy—lived a quiet, lazy life in patrons’ houses—chief work, his “Fables,” mainly selected from *Æsop*—died 1695.

**RACINE (JEAN).**—Born at Farté Milon, near Paris, 1639—a French dramatic poet—his first tragedy, “La Thebaïde,” brought out in 1664—“Phèdre” is considered his masterpiece—“Athalie” was his last play—wrote also historical fragments—died 1699.

**DRYDEN (JOHN).**—Born at Aldwinkle in Northamptonshire, 1631—educated at Trinity College, Cambridge—poet-laureate in 1670—chief works, a satire called “Absalom and Achitophel,” an “Ode on St. Cecilia’s Day,” and a translation of the *Æneid*—died May 1, 1700, aged 69.

**LOCKE (JOHN).**—Born at Wrington near Bristol, 1632—educated at Westminster school and at Oxford—the great mental philosopher of his time—chief work, “Essay on the Human Understanding”—died 1704.

**BOSSUET (JACQUES BENIGNE).**—Born at Dijon, 1627—consecrated Bishop of Meaux in 1681—one of the greatest pulpit orators of France—died at Paris, 1704.

**RÉGNARD (JEAN FRANÇOIS).**—Born in 1656—a famous French comedian—travelled in many European countries—author of “La Provençale,” “Le Joueur,” and “Le Distrait”—his dramas rank next to those of Molière—died 1710.

**BOILEAU (NICOLAS).**—Born at Paris, 1636—a noted French poet, remarkable for the moral tone of his writings—a member of the Academy—chief works, his "Satires" and "Epistles," and the "Lutrin," a mock heroic—died 1711.

**FÉNÉLON (FRANÇOIS).**—Born at Perigord in 1651—Archbishop of Cambrai—one of the sect called Quietists—denounced as a heretic by Bossuet—best-known work, the romance "Télémaque"—died 1715.

**LEIBNITZ (GOTTFRIED WILHELM VON).**—Born at Leipsic, 1646—one of the most illustrious scholars of Europe—studied law at Jena—made the discovery of the differential calculus—wrote on mathematics, philosophy, and theology—died 1716.

**ADDISON (JOSEPH).**—Born near Amesbury in Wiltshire, 1672—educated at Oxford—much engaged in politics under Anne and George I.—famous for his prose papers in the *Spectator*—wrote also "Cato, a tragedy," a "Letter from Italy," and other poems—died 1719, aged 47.

**NEWTON (SIR ISAAC).**—Born at Woolsthorpe, Lincolnshire, December 25, 1642—professor of mathematics at Cambridge—discoverer of the law of universal gravitation—remarkable also for his optical discoveries—chief work, "Principia Mathematica," a Latin treatise on natural philosophy—wrote also on the Prophecy of Daniel—died 1727, aged 85.

**ROLLIN (CHARLES).**—Born at Paris, 1661—professor of rhetoric at Plessis—chief works, "Belles Lettres" and "Ancient History"—died 1741.

**MASSILLON (JEAN BAPTISTE).**—Born at Hières in Provence, 1663—the greatest of the French preachers—made Bishop of Clermont in 1717—died of apoplexy, 1742.

**POPE (ALEXANDER).**—Born in London, 1688—son of a linen-draper—chief works, the "Dunciad," "Essay on Criticism," "Rape of the Lock," a mock-heroic poem, and his translations of Homer's Iliad and Odyssey—died 1744.

**LE SAGE (ALAIN RÉNÉ).**—Born at Sarzeau in Bretagne 1688—wrote many plays—translated much from the Spanish—best-known work, his novel, "Gil Blas de Santillane," published in 1715—died at Boulogne, 1747.

**MONTESQUIEU (CHARLES).**—Born near Bordeaux, 1689—a president in the parliament of that city—chief works, "Persian Letters," the "Spirit of Laws," and a classic romance, "Temple of Cnidus"—died 1755.

**HANDEL (GEORGE FREDERIC).**—Born at Halle in Saxony, 1685—a great musician—came to London in 1710—composer of many grand oratorios, among which may be named "Saul," the "Messiah," and "Samson"—died 1759.

**VOLTAIRE (FRANÇOIS MARIE).**—Born at Châtenay near Paris, 1694—author of "Henriade," the only French epic poem—among his historical works are the "Age of Louis XIV.," "History of Charles XII.," and "History of Russia"—wrote numerous plays and minor poems—lived his last twenty years at Ferney in Ain—an enemy of the Christian faith—died 1778, aged 84.

**LINNÆUS (KARL VON).**—Born at Råshult in Sweden, 1707—a great botanist—professor of botany and medicine at Upsala—author of many works—died 1778.

**ROUSSEAU (JEAN JACQUES).**—Born at Geneva, 1712—son of a watchmaker—a sceptic in religious matters—author of many operas, and eloquent literary works—obliged to leave France on the publication of his "Contrat Social," an essay which maintains the equal rights of all men—died 1778.

**METASTASIO (PIETRO).**—Born at Rome, 1698—a distinguished poet—made imperial laureate at Vienna about 1729—among his sacred dramas may be named "La Passione," "La Morte d'Abel," and "Isacco"—died 1782.

**BUFFON (GEORGE, COUNT).**—Born at Montbard in Burgundy, 1707—a great naturalist—chief work, "Histoire Naturelle"—died 1788.

## CHRONOLOGY OF THE SEVENTH PERIOD.

SEVENTEENTH CENTURY—*continued.*

Cromwell, Protector of England .....	A.D. 1653
Restoration of the Stewarts in England .....	1660
Treaty of Aix-la-Chapelle .....	1668
Battle of Seneffe .....	1674
Treaty of Nimwegen .....	1678
Habeas Corpus Act passed in England .....	1679
John Sobieski of Poland defeats the Turks at Vienna .....	1683
Edict of Nantes Revoked by Louis XIV. ....	1685
League of Augsburg .....	1686
The second English Revolution .....	1688
Peter the Great sole ruler of Russia .....	1689
Battle of the Boyne .....	1690
Battle off Cape La Hogue .....	1692
Treaty of Ryswick .....	1697
Charles XII., king of Sweden .....	1697
Battle of Narva .....	1700

## EIGHTEENTH CENTURY.

The Grand Alliance .....	A.D. 1701
French fleet destroyed at Vigo .....	1702
Battle of Blenheim .....	1704
Battle of Ramillies .....	1706
Union of English and Scottish Parliaments .....	1707
Battle of Almanza .....	1707
Battle of Oudenarde .....	1708
Battle of Pultowa .....	1709
Battle of Malplaquet .....	1709
Treaty of Utrecht .....	1713
Accession of House of Brunswick in Great Britain .....	1714
Death of Louis XIV. of France .....	1715
Charles XII. of Sweden killed at Friedrichshall .....	1718
Pragmatic Sanction of Emperor Charles VI. ....	1724
Death of Peter the Great .....	1725
Frederic the Great, king of Prussia .....	1740
Treaty of Breslau .....	1742
Battle of Dettingen .....	1743
Battle of Fontenoy .....	1745
Peace of Dresden .....	1745
Second Treaty of Aix-la-Chapelle .....	1748
The Seven Years' War begins .....	1756
Battles of Rossbach and Leuthen .....	1757
Battle of Zorndorf .....	1758
Battle of Minden .....	1759
Close of the Seven Years' War: Peace of Hubertsburg .....	1763
Birth of Napoleon Bonaparte .....	1769
First partition of Poland .....	1772
Accession of Louis XVI. of France .....	1774
Beginning of American War .....	1775
Independence of the United States acknowledged by Britain .....	1783
Death of Frederic the Great .....	1786

## **Eighth Period.**

From the Beginning of the French Revolution  
to the Present Day.

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### **CHAPTER I.**

#### ***THE FRENCH REVOLUTION.—PART I.***

**Central Point: Storming of the Bastille—July 14, 1789 A.D.**

**British History: Reigns of George I.—1714–1727; George II.—1727–1760;  
George III.—1760–1820 A.D.**

1. **Reign of Louis XV.:** 1715–1774 A.D.—When, in 1723, Philip, Duke of Orleans, and Cardinal Dubois, sank within a few months of each other into the grave, Louis XV. was a boy of thirteen. Three years later began the administration of Cardinal Fleury, tutor to the king, which, lasting for seventeen years (1726–43), marks the best period of a shameful reign. After the death of Fleury, France went rapidly down the hill. The court, ruled by the favourites of the licentious king, exhausted every shape of costly debauchery. The last penny of taxation was wrung from the starving peasants. The soldiers of France were beaten at Dettingen, at Rossbach, and at Minden. Canada, Nova Scotia, and some of the finest of the Antilles were wrested from Louis by the British. The public mind was powerfully affected by the infidelity of Voltaire and the sentimentalism of Rousseau. Bitter, indeed, must have been the fading days of the worn-out voluptuary, as he sank from his throne into a dishonoured grave. Looking on to the future he was not to see, no wonder that he sighed out to his courtiers the terrible truth, “After me, the deluge.”

2. **Accession of Louis XVI. : 1774 A.D.**—Louis XVI. succeeded his grandfather on the 10th of May 1774. Then twenty years of age, he had been already four years married to Marie-Antoinette, the beautiful daughter of Maria-Theresa. The young couple entered with the fresh joy of their years into the gaieties of the coronation, and all high-born France rang with the noise of feasting. But in every square mile of the land there were men whose wives and children cried to them in vain for bread.

3. Louis XV. had left a debt of many millions of pounds. It was a gigantic task to support an expensive court and government under that enormous burden. Minister after minister tried it, and failed. Ablest of all, and as honest as able, was Turgot (1774–76), who managed in eighteen months to convert a deficit of twenty-one million into a surplus of eleven million. But his free-trade policy and his economies aroused the hatred of the landholders and the courtiers, and they induced the king to dismiss him on evidence of disloyalty which was forged. Necker, a banker of Geneva, did much toward the restoring of public credit (1776–81); but he, too, was displaced by a court-cabal. Calonne, a favourite of the queen, took his place; but never was there such a financier. When the king or the queen wanted money to meet a jeweller's bill, or for any other purpose, the smiling, witty minister borrowed on every side, without one thought of repayment.

4. **Meeting of the Notables : February 1787 A.D.**—For a time this lasted. But the day came when even Calonne could not fill the royal treasury, and some new plan had to be devised to make both ends meet, and stave off clamorous creditors. The expedient adopted in this difficulty was the calling together at Versailles of the Assembly of Notables—the chief nobles and magistrates summoned by the king from all parts of France. Calonne wanted to make up for the deficiency of revenue by a land-tax; but his proposal was rejected by these lords of the soil, who forced the king to adopt other plans.

5. **Recall of Necker : August 1788 A.D.**—Then came the dismissal of Calonne, who was succeeded by Loménie de Brienne, Archbishop of Toulouse. But Brienne could do nothing to

stem the rising tide, and Necker was recalled in 1788. There were then only 250,000 francs in the royal treasury.

**6. Meeting of the States-General: May 5, 1789 A.D.**—Necker yielded to the cry for a meeting of the States-General, an assembly not unlike the British Parliament, and comprising three orders—the Nobles, the Clergy, and the Commons. There had been no such thing since the days of Richelieu. It was a sign that the day of despotism in France was, for the time at least, nearly over. All over France the elections went on. No man who wore a good coat was refused leave to vote. Three million of the people sent up their deputies—lawyers, doctors, priests, farmers, writers for the press—to the great States-General, in which, for the first time during nearly two hundred years, the down-trodden commons were to sit in council with the nobles and the high clergy. After hearing a sermon in Notre Dame, they met in a great hall at Versailles.

**7. The Constituent Assembly: June 17.**—There a difficulty arose. The deputies of the commons, who more than outnumbered the united force of the two other orders, would not submit to be separated from the other houses. Sitting in their own chamber, they asked the coronets and the mitres to join them; and when the invitation was rejected in scorn, they formed themselves into the Constituent Assembly. The king, forgetting the lesson he might have learned from the History of England, stationed soldiers at the door of the hall to keep out the members of Assembly. This was the fatal move. Bailly, the president, led them to the Tennis Court (*Jeu de Paume*), where they swore a solemn oath not to dissolve their Assembly until they had framed a Constitution for France. Then the mitres and some of the coronets began to flock into the Assembly hall. Among the latter sat the Duke of Orleans, known as Philip Égalité,—a name he took to please the mob; and the Marquis de la Fayette, a hero of the American War. But greatest of the throng in fiery eloquence and political genius was the ugly debauchee, the Comte de Mirabeau, who sat as deputy for the town of Aix. Robespierre, too,—the “sea-green,” as Carlyle calls him,—whose pinched face, deeply pitted with the small-

pox, was soon to be the guiding-star of the Jacobins, had already in thin cracked voice made his maiden speech.

8. **Storming of the Bastille: July 14.**—At last, after many muttered warnings, and long gathering darkness, the tempest broke in awful fury. A fierce mob, leavened with infidelity, and brutalized by changeless misery and never-satisfied hunger, raged through Paris streets. The spark which fired the mine was a rumour that soldiers were marching to dissolve the Assembly. Necker, too, the sole hope of the starving people, had been dismissed (July 11). Cockades of green leaves, torn from the trees, became the badge of the rioters. Shots were heard in many quarters. Then the grim old prison of the Bastille was stormed. Within its dark walls hundreds of innocent men and women were imprisoned,—sent there on the order of the king, without a trial, and often without any distinct charge. Little wonder, then, that the first rush of the mob was to the Bastille. Dragging cannon from Les Invalides, they opened fire on the walls, burst in, and slew the governor.

9. The flames then burst out over the whole land, except in La Vendée. The castles of the nobles were pillaged and burned to the ground. Tortures were inflicted by the fierce peasants on their former masters. The royal *Fleur de Lis* was trampled in the mud, and the *Tricolor* (blue, red, and white) was upraised.

10. **The Mob at Versailles: October 5.**—One day in autumn a swarm of women gathered around the Hôtel de Ville, crying, "Bread! give us bread!" It became the nucleus of a riotous crowd surging through the streets. A cry was raised, "To Versailles! to Versailles!" and to Versailles they rushed, headed by a crowd of half-frantic women, and by one of their leaders, who beat a big drum. When they found that the king and the Assembly would give them only words, they gathered around the palace. Some thoughtless coward fired on them. Sweeping through an open gate, they spread through all the splendid rooms. The queen had scarcely time to escape by a secret door, when her bed-chamber was filled with a fierce and squalid throng. The timely arrival of La Fayette, and the consent of the king to remove to Paris, alone quelled the tumult.



**11. Changes in the Constitution : 1790 A.D.**—The next year saw sweeping changes in the constitution of France. The Assembly, of which Mirabeau was the master-spirit, proceeded to parcel out the kingdom into eighty-four departments of nearly equal size. Stripping the king of his patronage, they gave the appointment of new magistrates and officers to the people. Violent hands, too, were laid on the Church lands ; and to create a currency, by which these might be purchased, paper bills—called *Assignats*—were issued. But these speedily became worth nothing ; for nearly all the gold and silver coin was either carried out of France by the flying nobles, or was buried in quiet corners of field and garden. Hereditary titles were abolished ; and no greetings were heard in the streets but “citizen” and “citizeness.” On the first anniversary of the storming of the Bastille, there was a grand pageant in the Champ de Mars, where the king, the Assembly, the soldiers, and the people swore a solemn oath to maintain the new constitution of France. The Jacobin Club—so called from holding its meetings in a hall lately occupied by the Jacobin friars in Paris—now began to be formidable in its influence over the Assembly. Branch societies, all in correspondence with the central club, grew up in all parts of France. Necker, who had been once more recalled to power, was not radical enough in his policy to please the heads of the Assembly, and he took his final departure from France toward the end of the year.

**12. Death of Mirabeau : April 1791 A.D.**—Dark and still darker grew the sky. Mirabeau, “our little mother Mirabeau,” as the fishwomen of the gallery used lovingly to call him, was made President of the Assembly in January 1791. He exerted all his genius to quell the storm, the rising gusts of which had been felt at the Bastille and at Versailles ; and poor Louis clung to the hope that this aristocratic darling of the rabble might yet save him. But Mirabeau died in April ; and then the king was plunged in despair. There seemed no hope for him but in flight. He fled, but was recognized, was stopped at Varennes, and brought back to Paris.

## NOTES.

3. *Court-cabal*, court-council. The word *cabal* is of Hebrew origin, and means a secret conclave.

6. *Notre Dame*, the cathedral of Paris. During the Revolution it was turned into a "Temple of Reason." *Notre Dame* ("Our Lady") is the old French name of the Virgin Mary.

7. *Egalité*, "equality." The watch-words of the Revolution were, "Liberty," "Equality," and "Fraternity."

*Marquis de la Fayette*, born 1757. He headed the moderate Liberal party in France; and, along with Bailly, founded the club of the *Feuillants* or *Constitutionalists*. (See Note 2, p. 323.) Died 1834.

*Comte de Mirabeau*, born 1749. He was first an officer in the army, but afterwards supported himself by writing tales and political pamphlets. Through his efforts the National Guard was instituted in 1789.

*Robespierre*, François, born 1758. He was an advocate by profession. As one of the early leaders of the Jacobin Club, he was noted for his mild and humane disposition. His unswerving love of justice obtained for him the title of "The incorruptible."

*Carlyle*, Thomas, born 1795, in Dumfries-shire. A great historian and essayist. Author of the "French Revolution," "Frederic the Great," etc. Died 1881.

9. *Fleur de Lis*, the national emblem of France—three golden lilies on a blue field.

10. *Hôtel de Ville*, the town hall of Paris; begun in 1533, and completed in 1628.

11. *Assignats*. These represented land assigned to the holder.

*Champ de Mars*—"Field of Mars," the god of war—a large open space near the *Hôtel des Invalides*, in Paris, where military reviews and parades are held.

*Jacobin friars*, Dominican friars. They were so named from their first establishment being in the *Rue St. Jacques*, in Paris. *Jacobus* is the Latin, and *Jacques* the French, for James.

**SUMMARY.**—1715-74. Louis XV. reigned in France; during his reign Cardinal Fleury administered the government for seventeen years.—1774. Louis XVI. succeeded to the throne. Several of his ministers tried but failed to raise money for the royal treasury.—1787. The king called a meeting of the *Notables*.—1788. Necker was again made prime minister.—1789. The States-General met for the first time since the days of Richelieu. The Constituent Assembly resolved to frame a constitution for France. The storming of the Bastille ushered in the Revolution. A mob headed by women rushed to Versailles.—1790. The new constitution was proclaimed by Mirabeau.—1791. Mirabeau was made President of the Assembly, but died shortly afterwards.

## CHAPTER II.

*THE FRENCH REVOLUTION.—PART II.*

Central Point: Louis XVI. guillotined—January 21, 1793 A.D.

British History: Reign of George III.—1760-1820 A.D.

1. **The Legislative Assembly: October 1791 A.D.**—The Constituent Assembly, having sat for two and a half years, passed a resolution dissolving itself (September 30). The breaking of the nobles' power, the establishment of the National Guard, and the abolition of torture, secret letters, and many oppressive

taxes, were among the boons it had conferred on France. Its place was taken by a new body called the Legislative Assembly, which began to sit on the 1st of October.

2. **Three Parties.**—Three distinct factions were already clearly marked out in this terrible time, and among these a strife began for pre-eminence. It was, in truth, a battle to the death. The spirit of the vanished Assembly was embodied in the party of the *Feuillants*, who sat on the right of the tribune. These friends of limited monarchy numbered among them the National Guard and most of the officers of State. The *Girondists*, or Federal Republicans, formed the second party. Occupying the highest seats in the hall, and therefrom called the *Mountain*, sat the Radicals or Red Republicans—chiefly members of the Jacobin and Cordelier Clubs—whose rallying-cry was “No king.” The list of this third party contained those terrible names which make us shudder, such as Robespierre and Danton.

3. **Invasion by Austrians and Prussians: 1792 A.D.**—The sympathy of the neighbouring sovereigns for Louis, and for the imperilled cause of monarchy, led them now to interfere. A great army of Austrians and Prussians, under the Duke of Brunswick, entered the French territory. Already the violent manifesto which Brunswick issued had roused the French to show a most determined front.

4. **Storming of the Tuileries: August 10, 1792 A.D.**—Matters then grew worse than ever at the centre of the Revolution. The Paris mob rose like a sea, swelled by some troops from Marseilles, who, singing for the first time in the streets of Paris the war-hymn of *De Lisle*, caused it thenceforth to be known as the *Marseillaise*. Amid pealing bells, and drums beating in every street, they crowded to the Tuileries, whose steps were soon piled with the bleeding bodies of the brave Swiss Guards. Louis escaped to the Assembly; but he was imprisoned with his family in the old palace of the Temple. La Fayette fled to the Netherlands, where he was arrested by the Austrians. He was a prisoner for the next four years.

5. **Battle of Jemappes: November 6, 1792 A.D.**—While the

prisons of Paris were still wet with innocent blood, shed by order of the Jacobin leaders, Dumouriez, having taken command of the French army, was marshalling his men on the Belgian frontier. Crossing into Belgium, he inflicted a signal defeat on the allies at the village of Jemappes. Acting as aide-de-camp of the French leader was the young Duke of Chartres—to be better known in later days as Louis-Philippe, King of the French.

**6. Meeting of the National Convention: September 21, 1792 A.D.**—The Assembly gave place to the National Convention, whose members were also elected by the people. They consisted entirely of Republicans of the two parties, the *Girondists* and the *Mountain*. One of the first acts of the Convention was to declare the abolition of monarchy, and to proclaim the French



MARAT, ROBESPIERRE, AND DANTON.

Republic. Three men stood far above the rest in lust of blood. These were Danton, Marat, and Robespierre. Danton was a lawyer, who held office as Minister of Justice. Marat, a quack-doctor, and the editor of *The People's Friend*, was the most blood-

thirsty villain of the three. Robespierre we have already seen sitting on the benches of the Constituent Assembly, like a serpent coiled for his deadly spring. Now the time had come: Louis must die.

**7. Execution of Louis: January 21, 1793 A.D.**—The trial of the king, for treason and conspiracy against the nation, began in December. He denied, with proud calmness, the justness of the charge; but he had to answer, not so much for his own faults, which were mainly due to weakness, as for the crimes of his ancestors. Death was the sentence of the court after a discussion of a few days. At ten o'clock on a January morning, he was brought in a carriage to the Place of Louis XV., where the guillotine awaited its noblest victim. Before the fatal knife fell, the king tried to address the crowd; but the rattle of drums drowned his voice, and in a few seconds more the head of Louis Capet—so the Republicans called him—rolled bleeding in the sawdust.

**8. The Reign of Terror.**—The daring deed struck terror into the crowned heads of Europe. They resolved to punish the regicides, and a circle of steel began to close around France. But her energies were not exhausted. All the powers of the State were centred in a small body of Jacobins, called the "Committee of Public Safety," foremost among whom were Robespierre, Danton, and Marat. The Reign of Terror began. The Girondists, friends of moderate republicanism, were slain without mercy, or were driven over the land to die. When Marat was assassinated in his bath by Charlotte Corday, a young girl from Caen (July 1793), Robespierre became sole dictator of France. Danton quarrelled with Robespierre and was guillotined (1794). A frightful carnage followed. Every day saw red baskets of human heads carried from the guillotine, whose dull *thud* was music to the crowd. Women sat and worked as calmly as in the pit of a theatre, while the fearful tragedy was being played out before their eyes. As fast as the prisons were emptied, fresh victims, denounced often by their nearest neighbours, were thrust into the cells to await their doom.

**9. Execution of the Queen: October.**—Queen Marie-Antoin-

ette followed her husband to the guillotine and the grave in the October of the same year. Bailly, Condorcet, Barnave, and Madame Roland met the same fate. Philip Égalité, whose vote had been given for the death of his royal kinsman, went also to his merited doom. Still the mob cried for more heads. The guillotine could not be stopped. Desmoulins shared the fate of Danton, and other Mountain-men, less savage than their fellows, were among the first to be laid below the edge of the fatal knife.

10. **The Republican Calendar.**—In order to break off completely from the past, a new calendar was invented. The year was made to begin on September 22nd, and was divided into twelve months of thirty days each, the five odd days at the end being dedicated to Genius, Labour, etc. The months received new names, such as *Vendémiaire*, the wine-month; *Nivose*, the snow-month; *Floréal*, the flower-month; *Thermidor*, the heat-month. Each month was divided into three decades, and every tenth instead of every seventh day was made a day of rest. The abolition of the Christian Sabbath and of Christian festivals was followed by an attack on Christianity itself. A Goddess of Reason was set up for worship, and torches were burned before her shrine.

11. **Insurrections in France.**—During those terrible days the Republic was in great danger. The army of Dumouriez was defeated by the Austrians at Neerwinden (1793); and he, finding himself hated and suspected by those in power at home, rode away to the Austrian camp. The desertion of so skilful a leader was a heavy blow. Insurrection raged both in La Vendée, where the Royalists mustered strong, and in the cities of Marseilles, Lyons, and Toulon. Marseilles and Lyons were soon reduced to subjection. Toulon gave more trouble, for the garrison was aided by British and by Spanish ships. The cannon of the Republic made little impression on the town, until their fire was turned on the forts commanding the harbour. When these gave way, Toulon was abandoned by the allied defenders. This success was mainly owing to the skill of Lieutenant-Colonel Bonaparte, a Corsican officer of artillery, who planned the attack and directed the laying of the guns.

12. Murders, rivalling in atrocity those of Paris, were perpetrated in many parts of France, but especially at Nantes. Carrier, who was president there, shot men, women, and children by hundreds. Boats, crowded with poor sufferers, were rowed out into the deep Loire, there scuttled, and left to sink with all their shrieking freight.

13. **Fall and Death of Robespierre: 1794 A.D.**—The fall of Robespierre marks the crisis in the red fever of Revolution. Members of his own faction, the Mountain, combined with the Moderate Republicans against him. They accused him of seeking to establish his own power by the death of his colleagues, and he was condemned to die. He escaped, but was retaken. Terror-stricken at the thought of the guillotine, long the slave of his frightful passion for blood, but now to be the instrument of his most righteous punishment, he tried to kill himself; but he only broke his jaw. Groaning with the agony of this wound, and shivering with deadly terror, he was dragged to the place of execution, and there slain, amid the yells of the crowd for whose brutal appetite he had been chief caterer. With his death the Reign of Terror ended. Thenceforward France continued to mend.

14. In the summer of the next year (June 9th, 1795) little Louis XVII., who had been lingering in the Temple since the death of his parents, died, worn out by abuse and neglect. He was only ten years old.

15. **The Directory: 1795 A.D.**—The Convention then gave place to the Directory. France received a new Constitution—the third since 1789. The laws were to be made by two Councils—the *Council of Elders* and the *Council of Five Hundred*. The power of proposing a new law lay with the latter; while the former, numbering two hundred and fifty members, all above forty years of age, sat in judgment to pass or reject the proposals of the larger body. The execution of the laws was vested in five Directors, who were chosen by the Elders and the Five Hundred. Each Director was President for three months, and then yielded to the next in turn.

16. **The 13th Vendémiaire (October 5).**—The Directory was

not established without a struggle. It was short, but sharp and thoroughly decisive. The Sections of Paris protested against the change proposed by the Convention; and the National Guard, to the number of thirty thousand, backed the citizens in their resistance. There were only five thousand troops in Paris to oppose this formidable mass. The command of these was given to Barras, who wisely intrusted the cannon to that same artillery officer whom we have seen directing the bombardment of Toulon. Bonaparte pointed the guns, charged to the muzzle with grape-shot, down all the streets by which the Tuileries could be approached; and when, on the morning of the 13th Vendémiaire (October 5), the heads of the advancing columns began to appear along the quays and Rue St. Honoré, they were ordered to disperse in the name of the Convention. They moved on. The matches were applied. Gun after gun thundered in the faces of the wedged-up crowd, and the shot tore its way in broad lanes through the mass. There was no standing this. After a few straggling shots and some feeble show of fighting, the National Guard fell back, and the new Constitution stood on firm ground. With this ended the French Revolution, and here opened the wonderful career of Napoleon Bonaparte.

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#### NOTES.

2. *Feuillants*. They took their name from the convent of the *Feuillans*, in the Rue St. Honoré, Paris, where they met. They were supporters of the Constitution, and wished to see a stable government established.

*Girondists*, named from the department of Gironde, whence came the most influential members of the party.

*Cordelier Club*. This club met in the chapel of a Franciscan monastery, and was named after the *Cordeliers* (cord-wearers), a branch of the Franciscan friars; so called because they wore round the waist a knotted cord instead of a girdle.

7. *Guillotine*. The Guillotine was invented about 1785 by Dr. Guillotin. It is a large loaded knife set in a wooden frame, and its action is instantaneous. Dr. Guillotin did not, as is commonly thought, perish by his own invention. A similar instrument was in early use in Scotland, where it was called the Maiden. It was also used at Halifax in England.

16. *Vendémiaire*. In the Republican calendar it corresponded to the period from 23rd September to 21st October.

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**SUMMARY.**—1791. The new Legislative Assembly consisted of three parties—the *Feuillants*, the *Girondists*, and the *Mountain men*.—1792. An army of Prussians and Austrians invaded France in support of Louis. *Aug. 10*. The Tuileries was stormed by a mob. *Nov. 6*. The allies were defeated at Jemappes by Dumouriez. *Sept. 21*. The National Convention met; Danton, Robespierre, and Marat were the leaders.—1793. Louis XVI. was guillotined. By the murder of Marat, Robespierre was left sole dictator during the Reign of Terror. Queen Marie-Antoinette and Philip Egalité were



also guillotined. A new calendar was invented; the Christian Sabbath was abolished; and every tenth day was made a day of rest. Insurrections arose in Southern France: Toulon was reduced through the skill of Lieutenant-Colonel Bonaparte.—1794. Robespierre was sentenced to death by the Mountain and the Moderate Republicans.—1795. The Directory was established in room of the Convention. Oct. 5. The National Guard were dispersed at Paris: this closed the French Revolution.

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## CHAPTER III.

### *NAPOLEON BONAPARTE.—I. CONQUEROR.*

Central Point: Battle of Marengo—June 14, 1800 A.D.

British History: Reign of George III.—1760-1820 A.D.

1. **Early Life of Bonaparte.**—Napoleon Bonaparte was born at Ajaccio in Corsica on the 15th of August 1769. His father, Charles Bonaparte, was an Italian lawyer; but he had seen some military service in defending Corsica against the French, who obtained possession of the island in 1768. His mother was Letizia Ramolino. Of these parents Napoleon was the second son. In April 1779 the little fellow, then not ten years old, left home for the Military School of Brienne. There he spent five years and a half. His name appears in the report furnished yearly to the king by the inspector of schools, with these remarks: "Distinguished in mathematical studies, tolerably versed in history and geography, much behind in Latin, belles-lettres, and other accomplishments; of regular habits, studious, and well-behaved, and enjoying excellent health." The story of the snow fortress, attacked and defended by the Brienne boys, when Napoleon led the stormers, is a well-known incident of his school life. In October 1784 the young mathematician left Brienne for the Military School at Paris; and in less than a year he got his commission as sub-lieutenant of artillery (1785).

2. **Entry on public Life.**—In the French Revolution Napoleon took the popular side. We have already seen him cannonading the out-works of Toulon, and, a little later, tearing the National Guard of Paris to pieces with canister and grape. He little thought, on that October day, that the cannon which pealed out the death-knell of revolution were pealing in a great era of

French history, in which he himself was for twenty years to be the central figure.

3. After that critical day his rise was rapid. Barras having been made one of the five Directors, Bonaparte became by his influence General of the Army of the Interior at the age of twenty-five. His next great step in life was marriage. Josephine Beauharnais, a creole of Martinique, and the widow of a French nobleman who had perished by the guillotine, became his wife in March 1796. She was older than he by some years, but a warm and strong affection united their hearts. Before the wedding-day, he had received from the Minister of War his commission as General of the Army of Italy.

4. **Italian Campaign: 1796 A.D.** — The northern plains of Italy were swarming with Austrian soldiers, commanded by



NORTHERN ITALY—BONAPARTE'S WARS.

General Beaulieu. When Bonaparte arrived at Nice, he found the army with which he was expected to beat these hordes of Austrians and their Sardinian allies little better than a rabble—badly clothed, badly fed, badly drilled, badly paid, and with scarcely a hundred serviceable horses among forty-two thousand men. The one point in favour of the French soldiers was that they were young. Their new general was young too—only twenty-six—and had yet to be tried as a leader of armies. It

seemed a hazardous cast on which to stake the credit of the new French government. Yet the young general with his raw recruits conquered Italy within a twelvemonth ! At Millesimo he drove back the Austrians, and thus cut them off from the Sardinians. The Sardinian king, Victor Amadeus III., was glad to conclude a peace on the humiliating terms of giving up to France all his chief fortresses and all the passes of the Alps.

5. **The Bridge of Lodi**.—Having crossed the Po below Pavia, Bonaparte then forced Beaulieu to fall back on the Adda. Here was the Bridge of Lodi—ever since a name to stir the blood of Frenchmen. The Austrian cannon commanding the passage hurled death on the advancing columns. But the grenadiers of France, dashing gallantly on, carried the bridge, and were among the Austrian guns, bayoneting the artillerymen, before Beaulieu could bring his infantry to the rescue (May 9). Milan fell at once before the conqueror. Then followed the bloody Battle of Arcole, the victory of Rivoli, and the capitulation of Mantua, and Italy lay at the feet of a young soldier in his twenty-eighth year.

6. **Treaty of Campo Formio: 1797 A.D.**—Crossing the Alps and driving the Archduke Charles before him, Bonaparte then advanced toward Vienna. But finding his rear threatened by gathering hosts of Tyrolese and Bohemians, he gladly entered into negotiations for peace ; and he turned back to overthrow the ancient government of Venice. This “Bride of the Adriatic” was made a scape-goat for the sins of Austria. The galley *Bucentaur* was stripped of its golden decorations ; the Venetian fleet was either sunk or sent to sea ; the bronze horses of St. Mark’s were carried to Paris. Thus was Venice reduced to the state in which Byron found it :—

“ The spouseless Adriatic mourns her lord ;  
And, annual marriage now no more renewed,  
The *Bucentaur* lies rotting unrestored,  
Neglected garment of her widowhood !  
St. Mark yet sees his lion where he stood  
Stand but in mockery of his withered power,  
Over the proud place where an emperor sued,  
And monarchs gazed and envied in the hour  
When Venice was a queen with an unequalled dower.”

Manin, last of the Doges, fainted as he gave in his oath of allegiance to the Emperor of Austria. The Treaty of Campo Formio, concluded between France and Austria, was the seal of this iniquitous bargain. By it France gained the Austrian Netherlands, the left bank of the Rhine, and the Ionian Islands. The Milanese and Mantuan States were erected into the Cisalpine Republic.

**7. Bonaparte in Egypt: 1798 A.D.**—After a time of quiet repose, Bonaparte sought new laurels on the sands of Egypt. Arriving there in the summer of 1798, he defeated the Mamelukes in the Battle of the Pyramids. His chief object was to tear India from the British crown. But a mighty foe was on the watch. Admiral Nelson had chased him down the Mediterranean, and now destroyed his fleet as it lay in the roads of Aboukir (August 1, 1798). His repulse at Acre ruined for ever his hopes of crippling British power in the East. Leaving his soldiers—tired, sick, and starving—to attempt an impossible conquest, he secretly returned to France with a few devoted officers. During his absence of seventeen months (May 9, 1798–October 8, 1799), the Directory had fallen into disgrace, Austria had recovered Italy, and the finances of the country had fallen into confusion.

**8. The Consulate: 1799 A.D.**—All eyes turned to Bonaparte, who resolved on a change. The Abbé Sièyes, one of the Directors, had sketched out a new Constitution for France, and it remained for Bonaparte and his grenadiers to overthrow the old state of things and to lay the foundation of the new. The two Councils were removed to St. Cloud, lest they should be overawed by the mob of Paris. Bonaparte appeared one day among them, and passed from the Hall of the Elders to that of the Five Hundred. When, in the latter, the cry of "No Dictator" rose from the angry members, who crowded noisily around him, a file of soldiers rushed in to save him. His brother Lucien, who was president, left the chair, and proclaimed the Assembly dissolved. Murat then led through the hall a band of grenadiers, with drums beating and bayonets at the charge, and cleared out the members, some of whom tumbled with undignified haste



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out of the windows. Then the government of France was placed in the hands of three Consuls, appointed for ten years. Bonaparte was First Consul, and held all real power, his colleagues, of whom Sièyes was one, being mere assistants and advisers. According to the new plan, the law-making was to be done by the Consuls, a Senate of eighty, a Legislative Assembly of three hundred, and a Tribune of one hundred members, among whom the work was distributed in such a way that the body that discussed the government proposals did not vote on them, and the body that voted on them did not discuss them.

9. The First Consul then began to act the king. He wrote a letter to George III. of England proposing peace; but the offer was rejected in a strongly-worded reply from Grenville. Already Bonaparte had detached Russia from the coalition of

nations against whom he had to contend. At home he bent all his energies to the raising of troops, and a quarter of a million of conscripts were soon marshalled beneath his banner. He gagged the press. He put down the civil war in *La Vendée*. He filled France with detectives, whose vigilance covered the land with an unseen network of espionage. Well aware of the national taste for show, he gathered into the ballrooms of the Tuileries crowds of handsome soldiers and lovely women, whose toilets rivalled in taste and splendour the fashions of the later Bourbon dames.

**10. Battles of Marengo and Hohenlinden : 1800 A.D.**—Resolved again to humiliate Austria on the plains of Lombardy, he signalized the last spring of the century by his famous passage of the Alps. With thirty-six thousand men, and forty cannon, he climbed the Great St. Bernard, his soldiers dragging the dismounted guns up the icy slopes in the hollow trunks of trees. He poured his troops like an avalanche on the green plain below. On the 2nd of June he entered Milan in triumph, and met the wings of his army, which had crossed by the Simplon and the St. Gothard respectively. A fortnight later, he met Melas, the Austrian leader, on the plain of Marengo near Alessandria. The French army, outnumbered by three to one, was driven back and all but beaten, until the gallant Desaix flung himself with the last reserve on the Austrian column and broke it to pieces. The leader of the charge fell dead from his horse, shot through the breast in the moment of victory. The Austrians were soon driven beyond the frontier. In the same year (November 3) Moreau, who had been sent to the Rhine, defeated the Austrians at Hohenlinden. These successes were followed by the Treaty of Lunéville, concluded between Austria and France. The leading terms of this peace were similar to those of Campo Formio (1801).

**11. Christianity restored.**—Ere this, Christianity had been re-established in France; and the people gladly welcomed the old familiar chime of the church-bells, ringing in the rest of the seventh day. Now a general amnesty was granted to all emigrants who would take an oath of allegiance to the new govern-

ment before a certain date, and about one hundred thousand exiles turned their weary feet toward home. Wherever it was possible, these returning wanderers got back their old estates. The "Legion of Honour" was instituted for both soldiers and civilians.

**12. The Northern League: 1801 A.D.**—Great Britain was the Power most dreaded by Bonaparte; and he well knew that her navy was her highest glory and greatest strength. He worked among the northern courts until he united Russia, Sweden, Denmark, and afterwards Prussia, in a formidable league against Great Britain and her ships. But Nelson, sailing into the harbour of Copenhagen in the face of two thousand cannon, crushed the naval power of Denmark in four hours (April 2, 1801). And, a few days earlier, the Emperor Paul of Russia was strangled by conspirators. So the giant league melted into nothing.

**13. Treaty of Amiens: 1802 A.D.**—At the same time British bayonets, under Sir Ralph Abercromby, scattered the last relics of the army which Bonaparte had abandoned in Egypt. These disappointments and reverses made the First Consul wish for peace. At Amiens a short-lived treaty was signed. France retained Belgium and the left bank of the Rhine, and got back her West Indian Islands. Holland received once more the Cape of Good Hope. Great Britain kept Ceylon. But Napoleon never meant peace; all that he intended was to gain a short breathing-time, that he might take an important step at home, and gird himself for a more brilliant career of victory abroad.

**14. Bonaparte First Consul for Life.**—All France was wild with delight at the dazzling glory of the First Consul's victories, and the kindness of his rule. When the enthusiasm had reached the boiling-point a decree of the Senate appeared, proclaiming Bonaparte First Consul for life. The votes of the people all over the land ratified the change.

**15. The Code Napoléon.**—One work he did at this time, which half redeems his memory, in France at least, from the red cloud that blurs its glory. He set a number of his best lawyers to arrange the laws of his adopted land. Six distinct codes, pub-

lished at various times, were loosely grouped together as the *Code Napoléon*. Of these the Civil Code is undoubtedly the best; and France still enjoys the valued legacy. In the schools instruction took, as might be expected, an almost exclusively military turn. Latin, mathematics, and drill were the great aims of the teacher's work.

# NOTES.

- § 1. *Belles Lettres*, poetry and higher literary composition.
2. *Canister*, a number of small balls enclosed in a case or canister. When fired from a gun the canister explodes, and the balls spread out in the shape of a cone.
3. A *creole*, a native of the country, but belonging to a European race.
6. *Bucentaur*. The name is supposed to be a corruption of *ducentorum*, the first State barge having been officially described as "*navigium ducentorum hominum*;" that is, a ship for two hundred men. The last *Bucentaur* was one hundred feet in length, and had two decks. In the lower sat one hundred and sixty picked rowers. The upper deck comprised a state saloon for the Doge, and magnificent galleries for his retinue.  
Bronze horses of St. Mark's. These were restored to St. Mark's in 1814.
- Byron, a great English poet (1788-1824). The extract is from *Childe Harold*, canto iv., st. xi.
7. *Mamelukes*. Originally a body-guard of the Sultan of Egypt, composed of Tartar slaves (1230). By-and-by they acquired supreme power, founding one dynasty in 1254, and another in 1382. When defeated by Napoleon, they retired into Nubia; but they afterwards recovered Egypt from the Turks. In 1811, sixteen hundred of them were massacred at Cairo.
8. *Consul*. This title, used in ancient times, was revived by the French Republic. After the abolition of monarchy in Rome, the government was placed in the hands of two consuls (that is, colleagues) elected annually.
9. *Grenville*, William Lord. At that time Foreign Secretary of the British Government.  
Conscripts, those compelled to serve in the army or the navy. (Lat. *conscribo*, *conscriptum*, I write together in a list; enlist.)
10. *Desaix*, born 1768. Acted as lieutenant under Moreau. He conquered Upper Egypt in 1799.  
Moreau, Jean Victor, born 1768. Next to Bonaparte, the greatest general of the Republic. He was banished in 1804. In 1813 he joined the Allies against Napoleon, but was mortally wounded in the neighbourhood of Dresden.
- Treaty of Lunéville*. From this treaty some historians date the abolition of the Holy Roman empire of Germany.

**SUMMARY.**—1769. Napoleon Bonaparte was born at Ajaccio in Corsica, shortly after the island became a French possession. He studied at the military schools of Brienne and Paris.—1796. He carried on a brilliant campaign in Northern Italy, and subdued the towns of Milan and Mantua.—1797. The Treaty of Campo Formio was concluded between France and Austria.—1798. Bonaparte defeated the Mamelukes in the Battle of the Pyramids; but he was repulsed at Aboukir and Acre.—1799. Bonaparte was made First Consul of France.—1800. He defeated the Austrians at Marengo and Hohenlinden.—1801. The Treaty of Lunéville was concluded. Christianity was re-established in France. 1801. The Northern League, formed against Great Britain, was broken by the defeat of the Danish fleet off Copenhagen. 1802. The Treaty of Amiens was signed.—1802. Bonaparte was proclaimed First Consul for life. He caused the laws of the land to be arranged: six codes were grouped together as the *Code Napoléon*.



## CHAPTER IV.

*NAPOLEON BONAPARTE.—II. EMPEROR.*

**Central Point: The Battle of Austerlitz—December 2, 1805 A.D.**

**British History: Reign of George III.—1760-1820.**

1. **War renewed: 1803 A.D.**—By means of studied insults, Bonaparte drove England again into war. In May 1803, the British Government seized all French vessels in British harbours;—an act for which Bonaparte retaliated by throwing into prison all Englishmen found travelling in France. French soldiers then rapidly overran Hanover, and prepared to invade Naples. At the same time the First Consul began to muster his legions and his fleets for the invasion of England. This was his grandest design; but he never was able to cross the narrow strait. With one hundred and sixty thousand blue-jackets standing by her guns at sea, and double that number of red-coats lining her southern shores, Britain stood on her guard. The whole scheme vanished into nothing. Bonaparte turned away in fear; and leaving his flat-bottomed boats at Boulogne, he marched his soldiers toward the Danube.

2. **Bonaparte made Emperor: May 1804 A.D.**—But before he won there his greatest victory, he had perpetrated his greatest crime, and had also reached his highest eminence. A plot against his life was detected by his watchful police. Two of his generals, Pichegru and Moreau, were involved in the affair. While Pichegru lay in prison, he was found strangled; Moreau went into exile. But an innocent man fell a victim to a vague suspicion of the same kind. That was the Duke of Enghien, the last heir of the House of Condé. His true crime was only that he was a Bourbon. He was seized in Baden, and hurried to the castle of Vincennes. There, after a mock trial, he was shot by torch-light in the darkness of a wild March morning, and buried as he lay, in his bloody and bullet-torn clothes (March 21.) Within two months, the First Consul was declared, by the Senate and the Tribunate, Emperor of the French. When the

votes of the people were taken, only about three thousand names were registered against his elevation. On the 18th of May he assumed the imperial title at St. Cloud, and on the following day he created sixteen of his best generals Marshals of the Empire. The Pope, Pius VII., was invited to Paris to crown the newly-elected emperor. In the ancient Church of Notre Dame, on the 2nd of December, the ceremony of coronation was performed. The Pope blessed the crown, and Napoleon, taking it from the altar, in imitation of Charles the Great, placed it on his own head. Her husband's hand then crowned Josephine as empress.

**3. King of Italy: May 1805 A.D.**—The republics of Italy were then merged into a kingdom, of which Bonaparte was invited to become king. It pleased him well. Indeed, he must have foreseen and worked toward this ancient end of French ambition. In the Cathedral of Milan (May 26) he assumed the iron crown of Lombardy, saying, as he placed the rusty rim upon his temples, "God has given it to me; woe to him who shall attempt to lay hands on it!" He then named Eugene Beauharnais, his step-son, as his viceroy in Italy.

**4. Battle of Trafalgar: 1805 A.D.**—Great Britain, Russia, Austria, and Sweden were now united against the man who threatened so seriously to disturb the balance of power in Europe. He had broken faith with all, and it was clear that he meditated new and mightier conquests. The first great blow was struck by Lord Nelson, who shattered the navies of France and Spain in the great fight off Trafalgar (October 21), when he found a warrior's death on the quarter-deck of his ship, the *Victory*. But on land, the French eagles were brilliantly triumphant. Mack, the Austrian leader, was hemmed in at Ulm, and forced to surrender with nearly thirty thousand men (October 17). In less than a month the victorious French marched into Vienna, from which the Emperor Francis had fled to Olmutz.

**5. Battle of Austerlitz: December 1805 A.D.**—Then came the crowning triumph of the campaign. At Austerlitz, a Moravian village, the rival armies faced each other—eighty thousand

Russians and Austrians pitted against a nearly equal number of French veterans. A frosty sun shone bright on the yet unsullied battle-ground, as three emperors—Alexander of Russia, Francis of Austria, and Napoleon of the French—rode up the heights to direct the movements of the day. France and Russia were there to cross bayonets for the first time. Cannon thundered, steel glanced, whirlwinds of cavalry swept across the field; and all the terrors and fury of battle began to rage. The Russian lines were too long and thin. At once Napoleon saw the fault, and formed his plan. Driving in the centre, and breaking up the wings, he attacked the fragments of the line separately, and swept them in flying crowds from the field. In vain the Russian Guard strove to turn the tide of battle. It was a total rout. Then began the horrors of pursuit. Many fugitives were fleeing over the ice which sheeted a neighbouring lake, when the guns of the victors opened fire on them, and they sank through the splintered floes. The loss of the allies exceeded thirty thousand; that of the French amounted to fully twelve thousand. The Treaty of Pressburg, between France and Austria, was signed on the 26th of December.

**6. Confederation of the Rhine.**—One result of Napoleon's triumph was a great change in the constitution of Germany. The Electors of Bavaria and Würtemberg were made kings; and many of the smaller States were combined, by the victor at Austerlitz, in the Confederation of the Rhine. Already, in 1804, Austria had been declared an empire, and the Emperor Francis II. of Germany had begun to call himself Francis I. of Austria. This severance of Austria from Germany was formally completed in 1806, which is the date, therefore, of the final extinction of the Holy Roman Empire. The Emperor of the French then began to give away kingdoms. Seizing Naples early in 1806, he made his brother Joseph its king. Turning the Batavian Republic into the Kingdom of Holland, he placed its crown on the head of his brother Louis. His brother-in-law, Murat, famed as the most dashing cavalry officer in Europe, became Grand Duke of Berg.

**7. Battles of Auerstädt and Jena: 1806 A.D.**—This year

is most remarkable for the complete prostration of Prussia. She had been playing a double part, for which she suffered just and heavy punishment. Although she professed to be the friend of Great Britain, she made no scruple about receiving Hanover from the emperor, who was Great Britain's bitterest foe. Napoleon now changed his tone, having no longer any need to keep that perfidious Power in good humour. In two great battles,—Auerstädt and Jena,—fought on the same day, he utterly crushed the military power with which, but half a century before, the Great Frederic had wrought such marvels. Prussia lay humbled at his feet.

**8. The Berlin Decree—The Orders in Council: 1807 A.D.**—From the Prussian capital, which he entered in triumph a week after the bloody day of Jena, he launched the “Berlin Decree,” by which he intended to shut British commerce out of the Continent of Europe. The British islands were declared to be in a state of blockade. The Continent of Europe was to hold no correspondence, to transact no business whatever with Great Britain. British manufactures and produce were declared contraband, and British property was a lawful prize. The British Government retaliated by issuing “Orders in Council,” prohibiting trade with France and her allies. But these official edicts were nullified by the necessities of daily life. English cotton, English cutlery, English earthenware, could not be dispensed with, and were smuggled wherever an English vessel could ride at anchor.

**9. Treaty of Tilsit: 1807 A.D.**—We next find Russia facing the French emperor. Eylau was a drawn-battle; but there was no doubt about the Battle of Friedland, fought on the 14th of the following June. The Russians were driven across the Aller, with the loss of sixty thousand men; and the Czar Alexander sought peace, which was concluded at Tilsit on the Niemen. Prussia, who had plucked up heart again to dare French bayonets, had her share of the beating, and was a partner in the humiliation of the peace.

**10. The Peninsular War: 1808–1813.**—The re-action now began. Portugal having refused to adopt Napoleon's Con-

tinental system, General Junot occupied the country with a French army, and the royal house of Braganza was driven to Brazil. The throne of Spain was wrested from the Bourbons and given to the emperor's brother Joseph. Murat was promoted to fill Joseph's vacant throne at Naples. The Spaniards called in British aid, and the Peninsular War began. The story of this war may be read in British history. Vimiera was its opening field; and Vitoria (1813) the decisive triumph of its hero, Wellington. The war in the Peninsula was conducted by Napoleon's marshals, for greater interests occupied himself at the heart of Europe. He paid a short visit to Spain in the first year of the struggle, going, as he said, to rid the Peninsula of "the hideous presence of the English leopards." He beat the Spaniards at Tudela, entered Madrid in triumph (December 4), and tried without success to cut off the retreating army of Moore. Then news of an Austrian war recalled him to France after an absence of scarcely three months.

11. **Austrian War: 1809 A.D.**—Austria now mustered half a million soldiers, bent on redeeming the credit she had lost on the fields of Marengo and Austerlitz. Around her frontiers and within her boundaries a spirit had begun to burn which boded no good to Napoleon. The Archduke Charles called on the German people to rise against the adventurer and throw off the French domination. Napoleon, dashing over the Rhine; defeated the Archduke in Bavaria, bombarded Vienna, and carried his standards again into the splendid streets which had witnessed their triumphant march not four years before; and all this in nine days! (April 3–12.) He then crossed the Danube to the left bank, and fought there an indecisive battle. The Austrians broke down the bridge behind him, by throwing huge logs of timber into the swollen river; so he was obliged to shelter his army on an island, where he lay for six weeks.

12. **Battle of Wagram: July 5.**—From this retreat he issued to fight the great Battle of Wagram. It was a terrific day. The thunder of the sky almost drowned the peals of the artillery, as the armies rushed to the charge. All the house-tops of Vienna

were crowded with pale, excited men and women, gazing toward the field of carnage. Four hundred thousand men were on the field. By mid-day the Austrian centre was driven in, and the Emperor Francis, who had watched the battle from a hill, rode madly from the scene of slaughter and defeat. Peace followed as a matter of course. The Treaty of Schönbrunn, signed on the 14th of the following October, yielded to the conqueror territory containing more than two million of people.

**13. Napoleon's second Marriage: 1810 A.D.**—Yet Napoleon did not despise Austria: far from it. It was indeed great glory for the upstart to humble to the dust an ancient house like that of Habsburg. But he had still that hankering after ancient name and lineage which often disfigures the character of a self-made man. Divorcing the faithful and loving Josephine, whose only faults were that she was a plebeian and had no children, he married the Archduchess Maria Louisa of Austria, in the hope that this daughter of the Habsburgs would bear him a son. A year afterwards his hope was realized. On the 20th of March 1811 a son was born to him, whom he created at once King of Rome. But this King of Rome, better known as the Duke of Reichstadt, was not destined to hold the sceptre of France. On the fall of his father in 1814 he retired to the Austrian court; and he died at Schönbrunn in 1832.

**14. Capture of the Pope: 1811 A.D.**—The year which preceded the Austrian marriage had witnessed strange things in Rome. When Napoleon annexed to his far-spreading empire the Papal States, the Pope issued a bull of excommunication against the sacrilegious usurper. Napoleon, paying no heed to this once terrible instrument, took a still more daring step. He sent his gendarmes one summer night to scale the walls of the papal palace on the Quirinal, and carried the Pope a captive to Fontainebleau.

**15. Summit of Napoleon's Power: 1811 A.D.**—The position of Napoleon at the summit of his power (1811) is well worth marking. The French empire, over which he ruled, extended from the borders of Denmark to those of Naples. Holland,



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Naples, and Westphalia were ruled by his kinsmen. His brother Joseph held an insecure throne at Madrid. Bernadotte, one of his generals, had been chosen Crown Prince of Sweden. As Protector of the Confederation of the Rhine, he held the German States in subjection; and he performed the same kind office for the Helvetic Confederation, into which he had formed the cantons of Switzerland. Prussia and Austria crouched at his feet, and Russia seemed his firm ally. In four years all was changed: the magician's wand was broken, and his magnificent theatre of action had shrunk into a little house and garden on a barren rock far out in the Atlantic Ocean!

NOTES.

§ 2. Duke of Enghien. See Genealogy, p. 236.

4. Lord Nelson, born in 1758. He went to sea in his twelfth year. When the French War broke out in 1793, Nelson sailed to the Mediterranean as commander of the *Agamemnon*. He was appointed commodore in 1796.

6. Holy Roman Empire, begun by Otto the Great in 962; ended with Francis II., 1806. (See p. 106.)

Murat, Joachim, born in 1767; the son of an inn-keeper. He married Caroline, Bonaparte's youngest sister. King of Naples from 1808 till 1815. In an attempt to recover his lost throne he was taken and mercilessly shot (1815).

10. General Junot, born in 1771. He served in Egypt, Portugal, Spain, and Russia. He overran Portugal in 1807, and established himself at Lisbon as governor. After his defeat at Vimiera he signed the Convention of Cintra, by which his conquest was abandoned. Died 1813.

House of Braganza. The royal family of Portugal take their name from Braganza, a small town in the north-east of Portugal. A duke of Braganza succeeded to the Portuguese throne in 1640.

The Bourbons. The line of Spanish Bourbons was founded by Philip, Duke of Anjou, grandson of Louis XIV. of France. He was appointed successor to the throne by the will of Charles II., the last king of the Austrian line. The War of the Spanish Succession followed (1701-1714), and at the end of it he was recognized as Philip V. of Spain.

Wellington, Duke of (Arthur Wellesley), born in 1769. He entered the army in 1787, and from 1797 till 1805 he served in India. After his victory of Waterloo, he devoted himself to politics, and became leader of the Tory party till his death in 1852.

Moore, Sir John, born 1761. Commander-in-chief of the British army in Spain. While preparing to embark at Corunna, his army was attacked by the French. The British were victorious, but Moore was mortally wounded (1809). He was buried on the ramparts "at dead of night." (See Charles Wolfe's poem, "The Burial of Sir John Moore.")

14. The Quirinal, one of the hills on which Rome is built. The palace is now occupied by the King of Italy.

15. Bernadotte, Crown Prince of Sweden. This is the only one of Napoleon's territorial schemes that survived his fall. The reigning family of Sweden and Norway is descended from Bernadotte, who became Charles XIV. of Sweden in 1818. Before that, however, Bernadotte had abandoned Napoleon, and had joined the Powers allied against him.

**SUMMARY.**—1803. The war between France and Great Britain was renewed. A scheme of Bonaparte's to invade England came to nothing.—1804. He was made Emperor of the French.—1805. He became king of the Italian kingdom.—The navies of France and Spain were defeated by Lord Nelson at Trafalgar.—Dec. At Austerlitz the allied forces of Russia and Austria were routed by Bonaparte. Many of the small German States were combined in the Confederation of the Rhine.—1806. Prussia received crushing defeats at Auerstädt and Jena.—1807. Napoleon issued the "Berlin Decree" against commerce with Britain; Britain retaliated with the "Orders in Council."—1807. A treaty between Czar Alexander and Napoleon was signed at Tilsit.—1808-13. A war was carried on in the Spanish Peninsula; Vitoria was the decisive triumph of its hero, Wellington.—1809. The Austrian war ended in the victory of Napoleon at Wagram.—1810. Napoleon divorced his wife Josephine, and married Maria Louisa of Austria. He annexed to his empire the Papal States, and took the Pope prisoner.



## CHAPTER V.

*NAPOLEON BONAPARTE.—III. EXILE.*

**Central Point: Battle of Waterloo—June 18, 1815 A.D.**

**British History: Reigns of George III.—1760-1820; George IV.—1820-1830 A.D.**

1. **Invasion of Russia: 1812 A.D.**—Napoleon's disasters began with the Russian campaign of 1812. In defiance of the advice of old and wise counsellors, he declared war against the Czar, who had violated the Berlin Decree and opened his ports to British goods. Assembling a magnificent army of more than half a million, between the Vistula and the Niemen, he crossed the latter stream in the middle of June. The Russians had mustered to the number of about three hundred thousand men; but they wisely trusted rather to their climate than to their bayonets or their cannon. Falling back before the invading army, they lured Napoleon into the heart of a bleak and barren land, where his horses died for want of forage, and his soldiers succumbed to ague and rheumatism. Still his heart never failed him, for he believed that he was destined to march triumphantly into St. Petersburg, as he had marched into Vienna and Madrid. On he pressed through Wilna, and up to the walls of Smolensk, against which he turned all his force (August 16). A heavy cannonade made little impression on the solid walls; but the city was set on fire by his shells; and in the night the Russians fled from its burning streets. The march of Napoleon to Moscow, where he meant to take up his winter quarters, was checked for a little at Borodino. There Kutusoff faced the French (September 7). The armies numbered about one hundred and thirty thousand men each, and had between them over one thousand cannon. From early morning till nightfall the battle raged, and then the Russians fell back in unbroken order toward Moscow. Ninety thousand men were slain or wounded on that terrible day.

2. **Burning of Moscow: September 14.**—A week later, the army of Napoleon saw the longed-for haven. The towers of the

Kremlin, and the fantastic spires of Moscow, linked together with gilt chains, lay below them to the east. But when they entered the city, it was silent and empty. Next night a fire broke out, then another and another, until the city was a sea of flame (September 14). Napoleon and his troops could not stay. He, indeed, returned for a while to the Kremlin; but when peace was refused by the enraged Czar, there was nothing left for the baffled Emperor but to hurry back to France.

**3. Retreat.**—The retreat began on the 19th of October. The Russians followed fast, harassing the fugitives at every step. But more relentless than Cossacks were the snow and the wind. There spread before the fleeing host one vast winding-sheet of drifted snow. The blinding flakes fell thick around them as they stumbled on. They often marched between files of their comrades who had been frozen to death. Harassed by repeated attacks, they struggled with constantly thinning ranks through Smolensk, where they found a little food, on to the banks of the Beresina. There they were frightfully cut up as they made the passage of the wintry stream. Twenty-four thousand were either drowned in the icy water or smashed with Russian shot. On the 3rd of December Napoleon abandoned the phantom of the grand army, and set out in a sledge for Paris. Only a few thousand gaunt and frost-bitten men, more like famished wolves than human beings, mustered on the Vistula after this tragic campaign. It is calculated that one hundred and twenty-five thousand perished in battle; that one hundred and twenty-five thousand died of fatigue, hunger, and cold; and that one hundred thousand were made prisoners. Seldom has so fearful a blow fallen on human pride.

**4. Battle of Leipsic: 1813 A.D.**—The beaten conqueror reached the Tuileries about midnight on the 18th of December. He knew that the struggle was now to be for life. It gives some idea of the amazing hold which he had on the heart of France, to read that in four months he was at the head of three hundred and fifty thousand men. And he needed every bayonet there, for all Europe was arrayed against him. The banks of the Elbe became the scene of war. The victories

of Lützen and Bautzen, both won in May, were of little use to stem the great tide of enemies which had set in toward Paris. A conference at Prague decided nothing, but threw the weight of Austria into the coalition against Napoleon. Bernadotte of Sweden had already joined the coalition against him. Battle after battle was fought, until he made his final stand at Leipsic. There, two bloody battles took place, in the latter of which (October 18)—the Battle of the Nations—a body of ten thousand Saxons deserted the French lines, and so weakened Napoleon, that next day he began to fall back on the Rhine with a broken and disordered force. Five months previously, the great Battle of Vitoria (June 21) had driven the French armies out of the Peninsula.

**5. Invasion of France: 1814 A.D.**—The dawn of the following year saw a great allied host on the march for the French frontier. Wellington was in the south of France; and the emperor found even old friends and fellow-soldiers—including his brother-in-law Murat—arrayed against him. He summoned all his energies to meet the crisis. For more than two months, with a greatly inferior force, he faced his foes, winning many victories and enduring with unbroken courage many checks. At last he made a false move. He dashed to the rear of the Allies in the hope that they would retreat in terror. Instead of that, however, they marched at once on Paris, which was surrendered without a struggle by Marmont.

**6. Napoleon banished to Elba: April.**—On the following day, the allied sovereigns led their troops in triumph along the crowded streets. Napoleon, who came up too late to save his capital, rode away to Fontainebleau. Two days later, he was deposed by a decree of the Senate; on the 4th of April he signed the deed of abdication which stripped him of the French and Italian crowns; and on the 20th of the same month, having spoken a few sad words of farewell to the Old Guard in the court-yard of Fontainebleau, he set out for the little island of Elba, where he was thenceforth, as all the world thought, to enjoy the name of Emperor and a revenue of six million francs a year. The British frigate *Undaunted* carried him from Frejus

to his new home. A few days after Napoleon reached Elba, his faithful Josephine died.

**7. The Bourbons restored.**—The Bourbon dynasty was restored in the person of Louis XVIII., the brother of the guillotined king. But the Bourbons had learned nothing from the terrible lessons of the Revolution. The remnant of the exiled nobility returned to France, clamouring loudly for their lost estates, on which new owners had long been peaceably settled. Louis carried out the same line of action on a greater scale. He reclaimed everything that had ever belonged to the crown; and although he gave the people a Charter, which guaranteed eight great privileges, it was given with immensely patronizing airs, and its provisions were soon treated as empty forms by the king and his court.

**8. Corporal Violet.**—Meantime the disbanded troops of Napoleon filled every village in France. They sneered at the host of foreign troops, who fed on the fat of the land that the Bourbon might sit safely on his throne. Men began to talk through all France of the violets of next spring; and the innocent little blossom hid treason under its sweet leaves. A certain Corporal Violet would come, perhaps, in spring. Ladies who longed for his coming wore violets in their bonnets; and little pictures of the flower were sold, which revealed beneath their lifted leaves the face of the banished Emperor. All this foretold a change, which speedily came.

**9. Napoleon spent in all about ten months in Elba (May 3, 1814, to February 26, 1815).** He had around him there some of his old soldiers, who were ready to dare anything in his cause. Letters from France told him of the Bourbon misrule, and of the unquenched love for his magic name which was alive throughout the land. He was seen to grow more thoughtful as the days went by. The works of engineering, in which he had at first taken some interest, had lost their charm. A great plan was ceaselessly shaping itself in his brain.

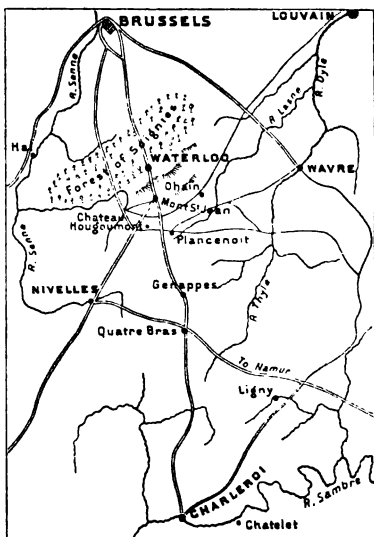
**10. The Vienna Congress: 1814–15 A.D.**—The winter of 1814–15 was spent by a Congress of the Allied Powers at Vienna, in trying to restore order among the States of Europe.

We are told that "they consulted wisely all day, and danced indefatigably all night." This agreeable round of business sweetened with pleasure was rudely disturbed. Like the bursting of a shell on their council-table came the news that Napoleon was in France.

**11. Return of Napoleon to Paris: March 1815 A.D.**—Slipping away from Elba in a brig called the *Inconstant*, after three days' sailing he landed near Cannes. He had with him one thousand men—six hundred of the Old Guard, and four hundred Poles and Corsicans. At Grenoble seven hundred men deserted the Bourbon banner for the tricolor. Marshal Ney, who had promised on leaving Paris that he would bring the daring little Emperor back with him in an iron cage, could not resist the old memories which the sight of the well-known face and the sound of the old cry, "*Vive l'Empereur*," called up within his breast. Onward to Paris Napoleon pressed. Louis XVIII. set out for Ghent. On the same evening (March 20), with the clatter of horse hoofs and the flash of drawn sabres, a carriage dashed up to the Tuileries. Out of it stepped the Emperor Napoleon, who once more sat down to work in his little study, as if he had returned from a holiday. And there he worked night and day with most tremendous energy. He looked narrowly into every department of the government. He agreed to all the provisions of the Charter, for he saw clearly that it was no time to breathe a word of despotic rule. And, most important of all to a man in his perilous situation, he strained every nerve to raise a great army. By the middle of June he had mustered one hundred and twenty-five thousand men, and with these he opened the campaign which was destined to come so speedily to an end.

**12. Battle of Waterloo: June 18.**—Nearly a million of troops had gathered at the summons of the Vienna Congress. Of these only the British and the Prussians, both of whom lay in Belgium, ready to unite and march on Paris, gave Napoleon immediate concern. If he could beat these closer foes, he would have time to meet the more distant armies on the Rhine. He therefore moved toward Charleroi on the 15th of June. Ney, Soult, and Grouchy were his marshals. On the following

day (the 16th) he gave battle in two places—himself driving Blücher from Ligny, while Ney made an unsuccessful attack on a body of British troops at Quatre Bras. On the 17th Wellington, in consequence of Blücher's retreat, fell back to Waterloo. There was fought one of the great decisive battles of the world, resulting, after the strife had lasted through all the length of a mid-summer day, in the utter defeat of Napoleon. His last hope on that day was in the invincible Old Guard, which he held in reserve until he heard that the Prussians were advancing to the aid of Wellington. Then he hurled these favourite veterans on the British lines; and when he saw them broken by the withering fire of the British, he turned pale, and calling out, "They are mixed together!" he rode fast from the field.



CENTRAL BELGIUM.

13. **Second Abdication.**—When he got to Paris and saw the temper of the nation, he knew that his day was past. On the 22nd of June, he signed his second abdication, which was in favour of his son. But the Allies, who entered Paris on the 7th of July, annulled this deed, and reinstated Louis XVIII. as King of France.

14. **Surrender.**—Napoleon then hastened to Rochefort with the view of escaping to America; but this he could not do, so carefully did the British cruisers watch the coast. On the 15th of July he went on board the British ship *Bellerophon* (Captain Maitland), having previously written to the Prince Regent to say that he came, "like Themistocles, to throw himself on the

hospitality of the British people, claiming the protection of their laws." The ship sailed to Torbay, where Napoleon was informed that the British Government had resolved to send him to St. Helena.

**15. Banished to St. Helena: October.**—The *Northumberland* carried him out to that lonely rock, which he reached on the 15th of October 1815. And there he lived, first at Briars and then at Longwood, for nearly six years, quarrelling with the governor and dreaming of the glorious past. In 1818 his health began to fail, and on the 5th of May 1821 he died of an ulcer in the stomach. His body, buried at first in the island, near a clump of weeping willows, was borne to France in the winter of 1840, and was placed with brilliant ceremony in the *Hôtel des Invalides*.

**16.** The character of Napoleon Bonaparte is a well-worn theme. Never has the world seen ambition so brilliantly successful, so frightfully reckless of human life, or so miserable in its tragic fall.

#### NOTES.

§ 2 **Kremlin**, a group of buildings in Moscow, consisting of forts, palaces, and churches. The principal object is the tower of Ivan the Great, 200 feet high, in front of which is the Great Bell of Moscow, 200 tons in weight.

5. **Marmont**, Auguste, born in 1774. He distinguished himself at the Bridge of Lodi and at Marengo. Noted for his brave defence of Paris against Russian and Austrian forces. He became a staunch adherent of the cause of the Bourbons. Died in 1852.

7. **Louis XVIII.** He was younger brother of Louis XVI., but his full name was Louis Stanislas Xavier.

**Eight great privileges.** These were—1. Equality before the law; 2. Admission to all employments; 3. Unity of administration; 4. Representative government; 5. Taxation only by the votes of the representatives; 6. Individual liberty; 7. Liberty of worship; 8. Liberty of the press.

11. **Ney**, Michael, born in 1769. Called by Napoleon "the bravest of the brave." After the fall of his old master he was captured, and was shot as a traitor in 1815.

Once more sat down to work. The period from Napoleon's escape from Elba to his second abdication is known as the "Hundred Days."

12. **Soult**, Nicolas, born in 1769. After the Battle of Austerlitz, Napoleon called him one of the greatest living strategists. He was Wellington's chief opponent in the Peninsula. After Waterloo he was banished, but he returned to France in 1819. Louis-Philippe made him Marshal-General of France. Died in 1851.

14. **Themistocles**, a celebrated Athenian general and politician; born about 514 B.C. He greatly distinguished himself in the battles of Marathon and Salamis. Having lost the favour of his countrymen, he was banished, and took refuge at the court of Artaxerxes, king of Persia. "If you save me," he said to the king, "you save your suppliant; if you destroy me, you destroy the enemy of Greece."

**SUMMARY.**—1812. Napoleon, with more than half a million of men, invaded Russia. He fought with the Russians at Borodino. *Sept. 14.* On the night after he arrived at Moscow, the city was set on fire. *Oct. 19.* He began a retreat to France. The army

suffered frightfully from cold, hunger, and the attacks of the Russians.—1813. Two battles were fought at Leipsic.—1814. France was invaded by the Allies. *April*. Napoleon was banished to Elba. The Bourbon dynasty was restored in the person of Louis XVIII.—1814-15. A Congress of the Allied Powers met at Vienna.—1815. Napoleon, escaping from Elba, returned to France and mustered an army. *June 18*. His power was completely overthrown at Waterloo by the British and the Prussians. He surrendered to the British, and was kept prisoner in the island of St. Helena, where he died six years afterwards.

### LATEST SOVEREIGNS OF FRANCE.

Napoleon I (Emperor of the French).....A.D. 1804	Charles X. (Count of Artois) A.D. 1824
Louis XVIII (Count of Provence).....1814	Louis-Philippe (Duke of Orleans) 1830
	Republic.....1848
	Napoleon III. (Emperor).....1852

## CHAPTER VI.

### FRANCE SINCE 1815.

Central Point: The Coup d'Etat of December 2, 1851 A.D.

British History: Reign of George III.—1760-1820; of George IV.—1820-1830; of William IV.—1830-1837; of Victoria, since 1837 A.D.

1. **France after the War.**—The Second Treaty of Paris was signed by France and the Allies on the 20th of November 1815. Its terms were on the whole unfavourable to France, for her frontier was contracted to the old line of 1790. She had to pay £28,000,000 sterling to meet the cost of the war, and a still larger sum for the mischief she had done to her neighbours in the days of the Revolution; while all the bronzes and pictures and marbles which Napoleon had gathered into the Louvre at Paris, were to be sent back to the cities whence they had been carried off. At the same time two other treaties were concluded;—the one by Austria, Russia, Prussia, and Great Britain, shutting out the Bonaparte family for ever from the throne of France; the other, called the Holy Alliance, binding Russia, Austria, and Prussia, “to aid one another, in conformity with Holy Scripture, on every occasion.”

2. **Reign of Charles X. : 1824-30 A.D.**—When Louis XVIII. died in 1824, his brother became king with the title of Charles X. That king, like all his Bourbon kindred, had a mania for



despotic rule. He could not read the lessons written in blood on the most recent pages of the national story. In 1827 he disbanded the Civic Guard. In 1830, aided by Polignac,—a minister as blind and as foolish as himself,—he issued three ordinances, which kindled the Second French Revolution. These were :—(1.) That the liberty of the press was suspended ; (2.) That the late elections were illegal, so that the Chamber of Deputies was dissolved before it could meet ; (3.) That the elections were to be made by the prefects, who were all creatures of the government, and by land-owners.

**3. The Revolution of 1830.**—On the morning of the 26th of July, Charles went out to shoot rabbits at St. Cloud, little dreaming of a brooding storm. Next day, many of the morning newspapers were published in defiance of the royal edict ; on which the police broke into the offices and smashed the printing-presses. Throughout that day, the streets were crowded with men and women, so angry and excited that Marmont thought it advisable about four o'clock to put the troops under arms. There was some skirmishing ; but at night all seemed so quiet that Marmont, thrown off his guard, sent word to the king that the riot was subdued. That night the street lamps were broken, and the paving-stones were torn up to form barricades.

**4. Louis-Philippe King of the French : 1830 A.D.**—The 28th dawned on a more stirring scene. Men, wearing the uniform of the disbanded National Guard, hurried along with the tricolor cockade in their hats. A sharp fire of musketry from the barricades and the windows of the houses drove back the soldiers everywhere, while a shower of large stones rained on them from the roofs. Point after point was won by the people, until the night set in. Next day (29th), the desertion of some regiments to the insurgents strengthened the cause of Revolution so much that before four o'clock in the afternoon Paris was in the hands of the people. A provisional government was appointed ; and a few days later Louis-Philippe, Duke of Orleans, the son of "Philip Égalité," was elected, not King of France, but King of the French. Charles took refuge at Holyrood

Palace, Edinburgh, where he lived for some time. He died at Grätz in Austria in 1836.

5. **Rise of Louis Napoleon.**—The reign of Louis-Philippe lasted from 1830 till 1848. The man whom he would have dreaded most, if he could have foreseen the future, was Louis Napoleon Bonaparte, afterwards emperor. He was the second son of Louis Bonaparte, once King of Holland, and was born at Paris in 1808. His mother, Hortense, went, after the fall of Napoleon, to reside in Switzerland; and while her boys were growing up, she used to spend the summers there, and the winters at Rome. After the Revolution of 1830, Louis Napoleon wrote to Louis-Philippe for leave to return to France, offering to carry a musket in the ranks as a private soldier. This having been refused, he joined the revolutionary party in Italy, and saw some service against the papal troops; but he was soon obliged to settle down to a quiet literary life in Switzerland. The death of his elder brother in 1831, and in the following year of the Duke of Reichstadt, son of Napoleon I., made him the head of the Bonapartes, and gave a new hope to his life. Thenceforward he devoted himself to the work of restoring the Bonaparte dynasty in France.

6. **Attempt at Strassburg: 1836 A.D.**—When the time seemed ripe for the execution of his plans, Louis Napoleon went to Baden, and there met with Colonel Vaudry, who commanded the artillery in Strassburg. On the 30th of October 1836, Vaudry assembled his men in the square of the artillery barracks at Strassburg, and presented to them Louis as the nephew of the late emperor. A cheer was raised, and all seemed well; but the other colonels of the garrison were not so enthusiastic. Then came hesitation among the soldiers, which was fatal to the design. Louis was arrested, and all hope was gone. It did not seem a very formidable affair to the French government, and the only sentence passed was that of banishment from France. Louis went to America, where he travelled much both in the Northern and in the Southern continent.

7. **Attempt at Boulogne: 1840 A.D.**—The illness of his mother, who died in 1837, called him back to Europe. He

stayed a while in Switzerland; but, when he found Louis-Philippe demanding from the Swiss that he should be banished from their cantons, he went to London. There he lived for about two years, until, growing tired of inaction, he resolved again to try his fortune on French soil. With some fifty friends, and a tame eagle, as the emblem of imperial power, he sailed from Margate in a hired steamboat, and landed on the 6th of August 1840 at Boulogne. His first move was to the barracks. But the soldiers would not surrender; and the crest-fallen invaders, after firing a few shots, made for their steamer again. Before they could get on board, however, most of them, including Louis Napoleon, were arrested. He was tried before the peers of France; and though defended by Berryer with great eloquence, he was sentenced to perpetual imprisonment. Ham, east of Amiens, was the fortress chosen as his prison; and there he lay until 1846, when he managed to escape in the dress of a workman. London became again his home, until the great change of 1848 opened for him a new theatre of action.

8. **The Revolution of 1848.**—Louis-Philippe was no favourite with the French people, especially after the death of his son the Duke of Orleans, who was killed by a carriage accident in 1842. Again murmurs grew loud and deep against the corruptions of the government. The crisis came in 1848, when a Reform banquet, appointed to take place on the 22nd of February, which was the birth-day of the great American Washington, was forbidden by the government. That evening there was a riot near the tavern where the banquet was to have taken place. The next day (23rd) barricades were thrown up, and some firing was heard. Louis, alarmed, dismissed the Guizot ministry, and on the 24th issued a proclamation that Thiers and Odillon Barrot were to take the direction of affairs. It was too late. The troops gave up their muskets to the mob, the Palace of the Tuileries was broken into, and a great bonfire was made of the throne and the royal carriages. Louis-Philippe hurried through the private garden to St. Cloud, to Versailles, and by-and-by to England. There he died, at Claremont (August 26, 1850).

9. **Louis Napoleon President of the Republic.**—France was now a republic once more ; but the tumults of the change were not yet over. The Red republicans—members of the extreme democratic party—made several attempts to gain the upper-hand, and to renew the horrors of the guillotine. Especially in June, there was a fierce struggle, lasting five days, during which many thousands were slain in the streets of Paris. The firmness of General Cavaignac restored order and saved France. A new Constitution, vesting the executive power in a President of the Republic, who should be chosen by the people, and should hold office for four years, was adopted on the 4th of November ; and in December Louis Napoleon, who had been in June elected deputy for the department of Seine, and had taken his seat in September on the benches of the National Assembly, was, by the votes of five million and a half of the French people, elected President of the Republic.

10. **Napoleon III., Emperor : 1851 A.D.**—The President did not agree well with the Assembly, and it was soon manifest that the one or the other must be crushed. One night the President was in remarkably gay spirits in the brilliant ball-room of the Tuileries, chatting and laughing with his guests. The carriages had scarcely ceased to roll away, when bands of soldiers began to move silently through the streets. Next morning Paris was in the President's hands ; and the leaders of the Opposition, who had been seized in their beds, were fast locked within the walls of the prison of Vincennes. On the walls of Paris a decree of Napoleon was posted, proclaiming that the Assembly was dissolved, that universal suffrage was restored, and that Paris was under martial law. This was the *coup d'état* (stroke of policy) of December. On the 4th, some eight hundred of those who rose to resist the blow fell by the bullets of the soldiers ; and on the 14th of January following, a new Constitution placed in the hands of Louis Napoleon the government of France for ten years. The cry, "Long live the Emperor !" now began, after an interval of nearly forty years, to be heard again in the streets of Paris ; and, after wisely allowing the idea to leaven the public mind for nearly a year, the nephew of

the Corsican ascended an imperial throne as Napoleon III, Emperor of the French (December 1852).

11. **France and Great Britain Allies.**—The maintenance of a close alliance with Great Britain, commercial and political, was a chief object of the new emperor's policy. When Turkey asked for help to resist the encroachments of Russia, France and Great Britain formed an alliance in her aid; and French and British soldiers shared the honours of the Alma and of Inkermann. In 1859, Napoleon helped Italy to recover most of her northern provinces from Austria, and received Savoy and Nice as the reward of his services.

12. **Fall of the Empire: 1870 A.D.**—After he had sat on the throne of France for eighteen years, and had come to be recognized as one of the most astute statesmen in Europe, a conflict with Germany brought about his fall. He had long regarded with jealousy the increasing power of Prussia, which had been ably fostered by Count Bismarck. The manner in which that Power prevented his purchase of Luxemburg from Holland in 1867, imbibited his feelings toward her. The immediate occasion of the quarrel, however, was the conduct of Prussia in connection with the vacant Spanish throne in 1870. The explanations offered by Bismarck were deemed unsatisfactory, and France declared war. Napoleon had both miscalculated his own resources and under-estimated those of his enemy. Before the war had lasted many weeks, his armies were crushed, and he himself was forced to surrender at Sedan (September 1, 1870). The Parisians then abolished the empire and proclaimed a republic. The Prussian armies gradually closed around Paris, which surrendered after a brave defence of four months (January 28, 1871). The war was terminated by the Peace of Frankfort, by which most of Alsace and Lorraine was transferred to Prussia.

13. **The new Republic.**—Paris was then seized by insurgent Communists, and was besieged by the forces of the National Assembly meeting at Versailles. Not till they had tried the power and the patience of the Assembly for three months did the insurgents surrender. M. Thiers was elected first president

of the new republic. He resigned in 1873, and was succeeded by Marshal M<sup>c</sup>Mahon; who in 1879 gave place to M. Grévy. The latter resigned in 1887, and was succeeded by M. Carnot. The ex-emperor died in England in 1873. His only son, Louis Napoleon, "The Prince Imperial," volunteered to serve in the British army in Zululand in 1879, with the view of acquiring military experience, and was killed there by a party of natives into whose hands he fell. In his will, he named as his successor in the leadership of the Bonapartists, Victor, son of Jérôme (son of the King of Westphalia). The Bonapartists, however, generally recognized Jérôme himself as their head in the first instance.

#### NOTES.

§ 1. **The Louvre**, formerly a royal palace, but used since the first Napoleon's time as a museum of antiquities and art treasures.

5. **Hortense**. She was the daughter of the Empress Josephine by her first husband, Alexander, Viscount Beauharnais.

7. **Berryer**, Pierre Antoine, a famous French advocate; born in 1790. Although reconciled to Louis Napoleon's position as President of the Republic, he protested against the *coup d'état* of 1851.

8. **Washington**, George, born in 1732. He began his career as major of Virginian militia, 1751. A few years later he retired from military service and became a senator. When, however, the War of Independence broke out (1775), he took the command of the colonial army, which he led with the utmost skill and vigour. In 1789 he was elected first President of the United States. Died 1799.

**Thiers**, Louis Adolphe. He was member of several governments in the reign of Louis-Philippe; banished in 1851; made first President of the new Republic in 1871. Died 1879.

**Odilon Barrot**. He was President of the Council from December 1848 till October 1849; died 1873.

10. **Universal suffrage**, the right of every citizen to have a vote in the election of a political representative.

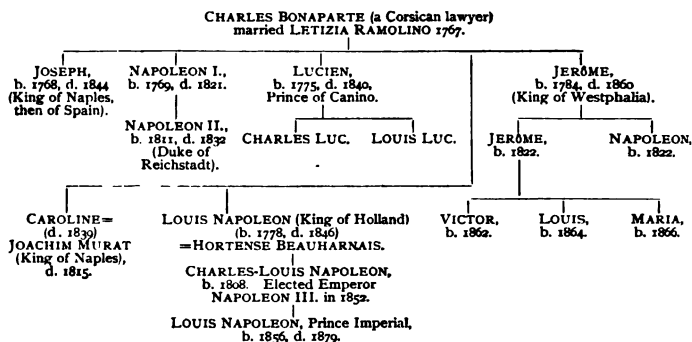
**Martial law**. A town is said to be under martial law when civil law is set aside and a military discipline is established, in which everything is done according to "the will of the commander-in-chief."

12. **Count Bismarck**—now Prince Bismarck; born 1815. He was chiefly instrumental in effecting the humiliation of Denmark (1864), Austria (1866), and France (1871), and in completing the unification of the German nation and empire. His internal policy is bitterly opposed by the Liberal party in Germany.

**Purchase of Luxemburg**. See p. 369.

**SUMMARY.—1815.** The Second Treaty of Paris was signed by France and the allies. —1824–30. Charles X., brother of Louis XVIII., reigned in France.—1830. A revolution broke out, and Charles took refuge in Britain.—1830. Louis-Philippe, Duke of Orleans, became "King of the French."—1836, 1840. Louis Napoleon, nephew of the Emperor Napoleon, twice made an attempt to secure the throne of France.—1848. Louis-Philippe abdicated the throne. France was made a republic, and Louis Napoleon became its president. 1852. Louis Napoleon was proclaimed emperor—Napoleon III. —1854. An alliance between France and Great Britain was formed in aid of Turkey.—1870. A war between France and Germany ended in the defeat of France; Louis Napoleon surrendered to the Germans at Sedan.—1871. A new republic was established.

# GENEALOGY OF THE BONAPARTE FAMILY.



## CHAPTER VII.

### CONTINENTAL EUROPE SINCE 1815 A.D.

**British History:** Reigns of George III., George IV., William IV., and Victoria.

#### SPAIN.

**1. Restoration of the Bourbons: 1814 A.D.**—After the expulsion of Joseph Bonaparte in 1814, Ferdinand VII. was restored to the throne of Spain. But it seemed impossible for Bourbons to reign except as despots. Against such treatment the Spanish spirit rebelled; and in 1820 a rising of the soldiers forced Ferdinand to restore to the people the Constitution of 1812, which was almost republican. This was the opposite extreme, and did not mend the matter; for the republican party, when they felt the power in their hands, used it unwisely. It was resolved, therefore, at a Congress of European Powers held at Verona, to re-establish the authority of the Spanish king. In 1823 a French force of one hundred thousand men, under the Duke of Angoulême, entered Spain, and with little trouble overthrew the Constitutionals. The king then renewed all the machinery of despotism; and so he continued to rule until his death in 1833. As his daughter, Isabella II., was then only three

years old, the queen-mother, Christina, was appointed regent. But Don Carlos, the brother of the late king, claimed the throne, and a desolating civil war began to rage. Some aid from Great Britain was given to the queen, whose cause triumphed in 1840.

2. Spain continued to be in a troubled state. In 1854 a revolution broke out, of which the chief centres were Barcelona and Madrid. Then a National Junta was established; and the queen-mother, who had been driven from Spain in 1840 and had returned in 1844, was again obliged to leave the land. Matters grew steadily worse during the next few years. In 1868, Queen Isabella was formally deposed. Two years later, she tried to secure the crown for her son Alfonso, Prince of the Asturias, by abdicating in his favour. But the device failed. The temporary candidacy of the Prince of Hohenzollern occasioned the Franco-Prussian War in 1871. Thereafter, the Spanish people elected as king Amadeo, second son of Victor Emmanuel of Italy, and he entered Madrid in January 1871. For two years he strove to reconcile the factions by which the country was torn. His difficulties were increased by a Carlist war, which broke out in 1872. Disheartened by the hopelessness of his task, Amadeo abdicated in 1873, and returned to Italy. A republic was then proclaimed; but the failure of its generals against the Carlists brought it into disrepute. Monarchy was again resolved on. Alfonso, Isabella's son, was chosen to be king as Alfonso XII., and he entered Madrid early in 1875. Alfonso XIII. was born in 1886 a few months after his father's death, and the queen-mother, Maria Christina of Austria, was appointed regent during the minority of her son.

#### PORTUGAL.

3. **Separation of Brazil from Portugal: 1822 A.D.**—When in 1807 Napoleon issued one of his haughty edicts, declaring that the House of Braganza had ceased to reign over Portugal, the royal family of that land crossed the Atlantic to Brazil, where the regent John continued to live even after he became king in 1816. This absenteeism greatly displeased the people of Portugal, who, catching fire from their Spanish neighbours,



rose and established a new Constitution. In 1821 the court returned from Brazil, which was soon finally severed from the crown of Portugal, Don Pedro, the son of John, becoming Emperor of Brazil in 1822. By thus choosing the crown of Brazil, Pedro left that of Portugal to his little daughter, Maria II. But her uncle Miguel usurped the throne, and a civil war ensued, in which the British helped Pedro and his daughter. The defeat of Miguel's fleet in 1833, off Cape St. Vincent, by Admiral Napier, brought the war to a close, throwing Lisbon into the hands of Pedro. Donna Maria reigned from 1834, when she was declared of age by the Cortes, until her death, which happened in 1854. Her son Pedro V. then became king. He was succeeded by his brother, Luis I., in 1861.

#### **HOLLAND AND BELGIUM.**

4. **Kingdom of the Netherlands: 1815–1830 A.D.**—After the abdication of Louis Napoleon in 1810, the Netherlands was annexed to the French empire; and so continued until 1813, when the people rose, shook off the French yoke, and recalled the House of Orange to be their rulers. In 1815 Holland and Belgium were united under William I. into the kingdom of the Netherlands. The two nationalities differed in race, in pursuits, and in religion. The Dutch were mercantile and maritime; the Belgians were manufacturing and mining. The Dutch were Protestants; the Belgians were Roman Catholics, in close sympathy with the French. There was therefore great jealousy between them, and the Belgians complained of being kept down with too strict a hand. When the French Revolution of 1830 took place, the men of Brussels, fired by the example of their neighbours, turned on the Dutch soldiers, and after four days' fighting drove them from the city (August 1830).

5. **Independence of Belgium.**—Belgium was then declared free, and the people looked around them for a king. The Duke of Nemours, second son of Louis-Philippe, had the first offer of the newly-erected throne; but the French king refused it for his son. The crown was then accepted by Prince Leopold of Saxe-Coburg-Gotha, who proved an admirable monarch, and

ruled happily till his death in 1865, when he was succeeded by his son. Antwerp was still held by the Dutch. But a French army of sixty-five thousand men entered Belgium, to enforce the will of the five great European Powers that had acknowledged the independence of Belgium, and Antwerp fell after a month's siege. Belgium has thriven rapidly since this great change.

### ITALY.

**6. The Austrians in Italy.**—Austria, after the Congress of Vienna, hung like a millstone around the neck of Italy. The deadly weight was felt from the Alps to Spartivento. Austrians swarmed in the basin of the Po, and creatures of Austria wore the coronets of Tuscany, Modena, and Parma. When Pio Nono became Pope in 1846, he began to make some useful changes among the people of the Papal States. The Austrians, alarmed at any signs of growing freedom, entered Ferrara in 1847, and all Central Italy rose in arms against the tyrants. The following year saw the flame of revolution kindled in Lombardy. Radetsky and his Austrian soldiers were driven from Milan; and Charles Albert, King of Sardinia, took the field against them. But the hour of triumph was short. Radetsky soon reconquered Lombardy and invaded Sardinia. Venice, too, had revolted, and had proclaimed the Republic of St. Mark, but was retaken by the Austrians. There was war also in Sicily. In 1848 the well-meaning but feeble Pope had to flee to Gaeta, and his people proclaimed a Roman Republic. This, however, was overthrown by a French army, by which Rome was besieged and taken in the summer of 1849. The Pope was then restored to his chair, but not to the hearts of the Romans.

**7. Italy a united Kingdom: 1861 A.D.**—The recovery of Lombardy and Tuscany from Austria with the help of France in 1859 has already been referred to. In 1861 the new kingdom of Italy was proclaimed, with Victor Emmanuel as king. When Prussia declared war against Austria in 1866, Italy joined Prussia, hoping to recover Venetia. Italy was defeated both by land and by sea, but she nevertheless gained Venetia,

which had been handed over to France at the beginning of the struggle. In 1870, owing chiefly to the efforts of Garibaldi,



GARIBALDI.

Rome was incorporated with Italy; and in the following year Victor Emmanuel made it his capital. The temporal power of the Popes, begun in 754, then came to an end.

#### GREECE.

##### 8. Revolt against Turkey: 1821 A.D.—

For more than three centuries the Turks had held Greece in un-

happy bondage; but the crushed worm turned at last. In March 1821, Major Ypsilanti, a Greek holding the commission of the Russian Czar, roused his countrymen to arms in Moldavia. He was met by wholesale butchery; his army was cut to pieces; he fled to Trieste, where he was seized by the Austrians. The rage of the Turks was specially directed against the Greek clergy, who were murdered by the score. But the fire of revolution was kindled, and it spread fast. A ten years' war began. In 1822 the Greeks met at Epidaurus to proclaim a provisional government under Alexander Mavrocordato. Vainly the Turks strove to quench the flames in blood. The fair island of Scio was wasted with fire and sword; but this only roused the Greeks to greater fury. With fire-ships they greatly crippled the navy of the Turks, and on land they won the strong fortress of Napoli di Romania. Foremost among the patriot Greeks were the brave Suliotes, a mountain tribe, whose leader, Marco Botzaris, met a soldier's death while repelling a Turkish attempt to break through the Isthmus of Corinth into the Morea. Lord Byron flung his wasted energies into the Greek cause; and many of his songs, written under this

inspiration, stir the heart like the blast of a trumpet. But his early death at Missolonghi, in 1824, deprived Greece of a devoted friend.

9. **Dissensions in Greece.**—Up to this time the government of Greece had been conducted with much disorder and irregularity. But now order began to develop itself. Taxes were justly levied; the public credit was firmly established; justice was administered; the liberty of the press was allowed; and education was promoted. To these good things there was, however, much opposition. A civil war arose, which greatly hampered the movements of the patriots. Torn by dissensions, the Greek councils and armies lost power. An addition to the Turkish force came from Egypt, under Ibrahim Pasha, who landed in the Morea, and began at once a career of victory. The fall of Missolonghi in April 1826 seemed to lay the hopes of Greece in the dust for ever.

10. **Battle of Navarino: 1827 A.D.**—Yet this hour of black darkness heralded the dawn of a new and brighter day. Christian Europe was roused from her neutrality. In the year 1827 three leading Powers—Great Britain, France, and Russia—signed at London a treaty for the pacification of Greece. It was submitted to the Divan at Constantinople, but was haughtily rejected. Matters, indeed, looked bad for Greece. The Turks held all Eastern and Western Hellas; there was disunion in the Morea; the National Government had fled to Ægina, and had chosen Count Capo d'Istria to be their president. At this crisis a British fleet appeared in the Greek waters, and was soon joined by French and Russian ships. The admirals demanded peace; and, when it was refused, they sailed into the harbour of Navarino, where, in a battle of four hours' duration, they utterly destroyed the Turkish-Egyptian fleet (October 20, 1827).

11. **Independence of Greece: 1829 A.D.**—In the following year a great Russian army crossed the Pruth; and on the 20th of August 1829 Adrianople, which lies only one hundred and thirty miles from Constantinople, fell before their victorious march. Blows like these forced the Sultan to conclude the

Peace of Adrianople, by which he acknowledged the independence of Greece. It then remained to settle the government of the newly-freed land. Greece was raised into a kingdom, and the crown was conferred on Leopold of Saxe-Coburg-Gotha. He held it only three months, resigning on the ground that the Greeks were dissatisfied with his rule. Otto, a Bavarian prince, received the vacant throne in 1832. After he had held it for thirty years, a demand arose for reform, and for a change in the succession ; the result of which was that Otto was deposed, October 1862. Prince George of Denmark, brother of the Princess of Wales, then accepted the crown, with the title, King of the Hellenes or Greeks. The Ionian Isles, which had been under the protection of Great Britain since 1815, were annexed to Greece in 1864. Under the Treaty of Berlin (1878), Greece obtained a considerable extension of territory toward the north.

#### HUNGARY.

12. **The Magyar Revolt : 1848 A.D.**—The Magyars, whose settlement in the basin of the Danube has been already noticed, form the flower of the Hungarian nation. They number about six million, forming two-fifths of the population, the remainder of which is made up chiefly of Croats, Servians, and other Slavonic tribes. Much discontent was alive among the Magyars, owing to the attempts of Austria to destroy the nationality of Hungary ; and when the Servians and Croats showed a disposition to side with Austria in this design, war broke out between the Magyars and the Slavonic tribes. The governor of Croatia, invading Hungary, moved on the capital, Pesth, but was soon obliged to retreat. Foremost among the Hungarian patriots, whose eloquence roused the land to arms, was Louis Kossuth, a man of noble parentage, who followed the profession of the law, and had already wielded a powerful influence over the nation as editor of the *Pesth Journal*.

13. **Kossuth, Governor of Hungary : 1849 A.D.**—Then an important change took place at Vienna. The Emperor Ferdinand abdicated in favour of his nephew Francis Joseph, whom the Hungarians refused to receive as their king. This kindled

the war in earnest. In December 1848 the Austrian armies began to move by nine converging lines toward the capital of Hungary. Almost without a shot, Pesth yielded to the Austrians, while Kossuth and the Parliament retired to Debreczin. The Hungarian armies were placed first under Görgei, whose fidelity to his country was more than suspected. In April 1849 he won a brilliant series of victories, which all but expelled the Austrians from Hungary. But instead of following up these blows by marching on Vienna, he paused to besiege Buda. Thus Vienna was saved. The Hungarian Diet then declared the land free (April 14, 1849), and appointed Kossuth governor of Hungary.

**14. Russian Invasion of Hungary.**—Roused again by this daring step, Austria applied for aid to Russia. Early in June, four hundred thousand Austrians and Russians entered Hungary at Pressburg. They were led by Marshal Haynau, whose name has become infamous on account of his cruelties. On the 19th of July, Haynau reached Pesth, where he wreaked his mean and brutal revenge on some of the high-spirited ladies of Hungary, whom he publicly flogged. Day after day the hopes of Hungary grew dimmer, until the decisive Battle of Temeswar, where the ammunition of the Hungarians ran short, completely broke up the southern army of the patriots (August 9, 1849).

**15. Flight of Kossuth.**—Kossuth laid down his office, and Görgei became supreme; but this traitor made use of his power to betray his country. On the 13th of September, he surrendered with his whole army and all his cannon to the Russian general. It was a fearful day for Hungary; and all through the ranks of the patriot army bitter curses were heard. One officer, snapping his sword in pieces, threw it at Görgei's feet. Hussars shot their horses, and many regiments burned their banners, rather than give them up to the foe. Kossuth gave himself up to the Turks at Widdin, and lay in various prisons till August 1851, when he was set free by the intervention of England and America. Thereafter he lived in the United States, in London, and in Italy.

**16. Independence of Hungary: 1867 A.D.**—In the war be-

tween Prussia and Austria in 1866 several Hungarian legions joined the Prussian army. After the Peace of Prague, the government of Hungary was reformed on moderate-liberal principles; and Austria and Hungary were made coördinate kingdoms under the same sovereign, but with separate parliaments and executives, and a joint supreme court or delegation to settle disputed matters. The Emperor Francis Joseph of Austria was crowned King of Hungary at Buda in 1867.

#### RUSSIA AND TURKEY.

**17. Cause of Discontent in Turkey.**—A new war between Russia and Turkey began in 1877. It had its origin in the hopelessly corrupt state of the Turkish government, and in the consequent disaffection of the tributary and subject States. When the disturbances began, in 1875, Roumania, Servia, and Montenegro were principalities, nominally subject to Turkey, but practically independent. Bosnia, Herzegovina, Bulgaria, and Roumelia were provinces of the Turkish Empire. The discontent was greatest in those provinces in which the majority of the people were Slavs—Bulgaria, Bosnia, and Herzegovina.

**18. Interference of Russia: 1876 A.D.**—A revolt against the Turkish government occurred in Herzegovina in July 1875. The rebels were encouraged and aided by their neighbours in Montenegro and Servia, and were able to hold out against the Turkish forces till July 1876, when Servia and Montenegro declared war on the Porte. Russia openly assisted the Servians. A Russian general commanded their army, and many Russian volunteers fought in the ranks. In the meantime a revolt had broken out in Bulgaria which many persons ascribed to Russian intrigue. In putting down the revolt, the Turks were guilty of unexampled cruelties, massacring whole families and villages of the Christian Bulgarians in a barbarous fashion. This aroused the indignation of Europe, and gave Russia an excuse for interfering in the quarrel.

**19. Declaration of War: 1877 A.D.**—The Russians declared war in April 1877, and having crossed the Danube at Sistova, marched toward the Balkans. The war lasted nearly a year.

The great event of it was the resolute resistance of Osman Pasha within an intrenched camp at Plevna for five months. The Russians are said to have lost fifty thousand men in their attempts to storm it. At last the Turks were completely surrounded. When provisions failed them, they made a brave attempt to cut their way through the enemy ; but it was in vain, and Osman Pasha and forty-four thousand men were forced to surrender as prisoners of war. The Russians then poured through the passes of the Balkans and threatened Constantinople, and Turkey sued for peace. A treaty was signed at San Stefano, near Constantinople ; but its terms excited so much alarm in England and in Austria that a European war seemed imminent. The danger was averted by the meeting of a general congress at Berlin to revise the Treaty of San Stefano.

**20. Treaty of Berlin: 1878 A.D.**—By the Treaty of Berlin, Montenegro, Roumania, and Servia were made independent, the two latter being afterwards erected into kingdoms ; Bulgaria was made a principality, tributary to the Porte, with a Christian government and a national militia ; Eastern Roumelia was left under the Sultan, but received a separate militia and a Christian governor-general ; Bosnia and Herzegovina were ceded to Austria for military occupation and administration ; Greece received a part of Epirus and Thessaly ; Russia obtained Bessarabia, at the mouth of the Danube, and also Batoum, Kars, and Ardahan in Armenia. By the Treaty of Berlin the population subject to the Sultan in Europe was reduced from 8,315,000 to 4,275,000, and the area from 138,000 to 62,000 square miles. During the war a secret agreement was made between Turkey and Great Britain, under which the latter agreed to protect the former in Asia, on condition that the Porte introduced reforms in the government there, and gave up the island of Cyprus to Great Britain.

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#### NOTES.

3. **Admiral Napier**, born in 1786. He was appointed by Don Pedro commander of the constitutional fleet. After his victory over Miguel he was created by the Portuguese king Viscount Cape St. Vincent. Died in 1860.

7. **Garibaldi**, Joseph, Italian patriot and soldier ; born 1807. He was the main-spring of the insurrectionary movements, beginning in 1848, which ended in the forma-



tion of the Italian kingdom. After each of his triumphs he retired to his island home on Caprera (near Sardinia), and refused all honours and rewards. Died in 1882.

8. Lord Byron. He led a restless and wandering life, chiefly abroad after 1810. He sailed for Greece in 1823.

10. Divan, a council of state; also a council chamber. From a Persian word meaning a book or register of accounts.

11. Prince Leopold, afterwards King of the Belgians. (See § 5.)

12. Louis Kossuth, born in 1802. His remarkable oratorical power, in different languages, enabled him to enlist the sympathy of other nations—especially of England—in the cause of Hungarian independence. He was elected a deputy to the Hungarian parliament in 1867, but he refused to accept the office.

13. Görgel, born in 1818. He was devoted to the study of chemistry and its applications to agriculture till the war of 1848.

14. Marshal Haynau, born in 1786. He was for a time Viceroy of Hungary in 1850. When he visited London in the same year he was mobbed by the workmen of Barclay and Perkins's brewery, on account of the cruelties associated with his name. Died in 1853.

20. *Porte*, the official name of the court of the Turkish sultan. The name originated in the Eastern custom of holding meetings relating to affairs of government at the gate (French, *porte*) of a city or a palace. At Constantinople, the high gate (French, *Sublime Porte*) of the Emperor's palace was used for that purpose, and the name was transferred from the meeting-place to the government itself.

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**SUMMARY.**—1814. The Bourbons were restored to the throne of Spain.—1833. Don Carlos claimed the throne from Isabella II. The Carlist War began.—1875. Alfonso XII., Isabella's son, became king.—1822. Don Pedro of Portugal became Emperor of Brazil.—1833. The fleet of Miguel, the usurper, was destroyed by the British.—1834–54. Donna Maria, daughter of Don Pedro, reigned.—1815. Holland and Belgium were united.—1830. The Belgians revolted, and chose a king for themselves.—1847. Austria invaded Northern Italy.—1859. Lombardy and Tuscany were recovered by the Italians.—1861. The new kingdom of Italy was proclaimed.—1821. Greece revolted against Turkish rule.—1827. The Turkish fleet was destroyed at Navarino.—1829. Greek independence was acknowledged.—1848. A revolt of the Magyars in Hungary took place.—1849. Kossuth was appointed governor. The Hungarians were defeated at Temeswar. Kossuth surrendered to the Turks.—1867. Austria and Hungary were made independent kingdoms under the same sovereign.—1875. An insurrection occurred in the provinces tributary to Turkey. The rebellion was put down with great cruelty.—1877. Russia declared war with Turkey; the latter was at last forced to sue for peace.—1878. The Treaty of Berlin closed the war.

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## CHAPTER VIII.

### THE NEW GERMAN EMPIRE.

Central Point: Battle of Sadowa—1866 A.D.

British History: Reign of Victoria, since 1837 A.D.

1. **The Holy Roman Empire: 962–1806 A.D.**—We have seen the revival of the Roman Empire by Charles the Great, under the title of the Empire of the West (800), and its decline in the hands of the later Carolingians; and we have seen its glory revived once more when Otto the Great was crowned at Rome

in 962. Then began the Holy Roman Empire of Germany, which lasted through many vicissitudes, but adorned with many great names, till the beginning of the nineteenth century. One of the chief aims of the first Napoleon was to humble the House of Austria, in which the imperial dignity was then vested. This he succeeded in doing on the field of Austerlitz (1805). That was followed by the Treaty of Pressburg, by which the Austrian power and territories were greatly reduced. When the Confederation of the Rhine was established in 1806, with Napoleon as its Protector, so many German princes withdrew their allegiance from Austria and joined the league, that the Emperor Francis II. formally abdicated the crown of the Holy Roman Empire, and contented himself with the dignity of Francis I., Emperor of Austria.

**2. Decline of Austria: Rise of Prussia.**—As the power of Austria declined that of Prussia increased. The position, the extent, and the wealth of Prussia, coupled with the enterprise of her rulers from Frederic the Great downwards, marked her out as leader among the States of Germany. Her rivalry with Austria dates from the time of Maria-Theresa and the Pragmatic Sanction. Then, and for half a century afterwards, Austria was able to retain her supremacy. Now, however, as the result of the Napoleonic wars, she had fallen on evil times. She had ceased to be the undisputed leader of the German nation; she had surrendered the imperial sceptre, and was no longer the symbol of German unity.

**3. The Schleswig-Holstein Question: 1848–50 A.D.**—The actual contest between Austria and Prussia had its origin in the revolt of Schleswig and Holstein from the Danish crown in 1848. The duchies were encouraged in their desire for independence by Prussia; but they were opposed by Austria, who saw in the crisis the workings of a scheme for the aggrandizement of her rival. In three short wars (1848–50), the Danes were generally successful. The influence of Austria prevailed to secure a cessation of hostilities, and Prussia had to defer the accomplishment of her designs.

**4. German National Assembly: 1849 A.D.**—In the mean-

time, the contest between the rival powers had broken out in another field. The German States still longed for union. Their aspirations were realized so far when a National Assembly or Federal Diet met at Frankfort in 1849. It was divided into two parties on the question whether Austria and the German States attached to the Austrian crown should be included in the Confederation. The Diet went so far as to offer the crown and title of Emperor of the Germans to Frederic-William IV., King of Prussia; but he refused it, on the ground that the action was that of only some of the German States, and not of the whole. The pretensions of Prussia caused alarm in several of the minor States of Germany. There were insurrections in Saxony, in the Palatinate, and in Baden, which were suppressed with the help of Prussian troops.

5. **The Confederation of 1815 revived: 1852 A.D.**—Prussia then adopted a scheme for creating a German Confederation from which Austria should be excluded. This was naturally resented by Austria, and an open rupture followed. Bavaria and Würtemberg, the two chief States of Southern Germany, sided with Austria, which had also the benefit of Russian sympathy and advice. Prussia thought it prudent to yield. The Confederation of 1815 was revived in its old form, including Austria as well as Prussia. Schleswig and Holstein were once more ceded to Denmark, on the latter promising to respect the rights of the duchies (1852).

6. **The Kingdom of Italy: 1861 A.D.**—In 1859, Austria was drawn into a short war with France and Sardinia, which greatly weakened her. At Magenta and Solferino, the Austrian armies were defeated by the allies. Peace followed, and one of its conditions was that Lombardy was ceded by Austria to Napoleon III., and was by him handed over to Sardinia. In this war, Austria lost not only in territory, but also in prestige. Two years later, Victor Emmanuel of Sardinia was proclaimed King of United Italy; and thus Prussia saw established in the south of Europe a Power on whose friendship she might rely in her struggle with Austria (1861).

7. **Count von Bismarck: 1861 A.D.**—In the same year,

Frederic-William IV. of Prussia died, and was succeeded by his brother William I., who had acted as regent for several years during the late king's illness, and had directed the policy of Prussia. He was now his own master, and he had as his right-hand man Count von Bismarck, who, after a distinguished diplomatic career at St. Petersburg and Paris, was promoted to the head of the Prussian Ministry. Bismarck was very soon recognized as the greatest statesman of the century. A man of great grasp of mind, of extraordinary foresight, of iron will and infinite resource, he became at once the mainspring of all the complicated movements which were designed to secure the advancement of Prussia in Germany, and the supremacy of Germany in Europe. Holding very strongly that the success of Prussia would depend mainly on the strength of her army—the doctrine of “blood and iron,” as it was called—Bismarck at once gave his attention to its organization and equipment.

**8. Austria and Prussia Allies: 1864 A.D.**—The Schleswig-Holstein affair brought Austria and Prussia into alliance in 1864. On the death of the King of Denmark, the German Prince of Augustenburg had himself proclaimed Duke of Schleswig-Holstein. The new King of Denmark claimed Schleswig as an integral part of his monarchy. Thereupon Austria and Prussia declared war, in order to force Denmark to keep its promise to respect the rights of the duchies. In the war, which lasted for eight months, the most brilliant passage was the storming of Düppel by the Prussians. The Danes were utterly defeated, sued for peace, and renounced all right to the duchies of Schleswig, Holstein, and Lauenburg, in favour of Austria and Prussia. By a subsequent treaty (1865), the allies agreed to hold the duchies under joint sovereignty. Austria occupied Holstein and Prussia Schleswig, while Austria gave up to Prussia all rights to Lauenburg on payment of a sum of money.

**9. The Austro-Prussian War: 1866 A.D.**—This settlement of the question caused deep dissatisfaction among the smaller States of Germany. Moreover, it was obviously only a temporary settlement. When a permanent arrangement came to be discussed, the old jealousies reappeared. The familiar game was

enacted of the robbers quarrelling over the spoil. In the war which followed—known as the Seven Weeks' War, though the actual hostilities scarcely lasted so long—Prussia had for allies the smaller States of North Germany and Italy, while Austria was supported by Hanover, Saxony, the two Hesses, Bavaria, and Würtemberg. It should always be remembered that, while the Schleswig-Holstein question was the occasion of the war, its real cause was the rivalry of Austria and Prussia for supremacy in Germany. It was felt that Germany could never be united under a strong central government so long as two such powerful States faced each other in the Confederation without having their rival claims settled. The jealousy with which Prussia was regarded was shown in the opposition of Hanover and Saxony. The weak point in Austria's position was the extent to which she had to rely on the non-Germanic element in her population.

10. **Battle of Sadowa.**—On the eve of the war, the withdrawal of Prussia from the German Confederation led to its dissolution. Prussia then attacked Hanover, Saxony, and Hesse, and swept away their rulers and their governments. From Saxony, the war was carried into Austrian territory, and in a series of masterly movements, carried out with rapidity and decision, the Austrian armies were overwhelmed and routed even before they were prepared to receive the enemy. The crowning victory was that of Königgrätz, or Sadowa, on the Elbe. The battle began in the morning of July 3rd, with a combined attack of the Prussian First Army and the Army of the Elbe on the Austrian Army of the North, strongly posted, with the fortress of Königgrätz in the rear. The Prussian soldiers were armed with the needle-gun, a new quick-firing arm of precision, which committed fearful havoc among the enemy. Nevertheless the Austrians held their ground till the afternoon, when the Prussian Second Army, one hundred and fifteen thousand strong, under the Crown Prince Frederic-William, fell on their right flank and rear, and secured a complete and brilliant victory for the Prussians.

11. **Triumph of Prussia.**—By the Treaty of Prague, Austria

gave up to Prussia all her rights in Schleswig-Holstein, and abandoned her claim to take part in the reorganization of Germany. Schleswig-Holstein, Hanover, the Hesse States, Nassau, and the free city of Frankfort, were incorporated with Prussia. A new North German Confederation was formed, with Prussia at its head and Count Bismarck as its Chancellor. The States south of the Main formed themselves into a South German Confederation. Though Italy had made a poor figure in the war, having been defeated by Austria both on land and at sea, the friendship of Prussia secured for her favourable terms. By the Treaty of Vienna, Austria recognized the kingdom of Italy, and ceded to it Venetia, with the city of Venice.

**12. The Luxemburg Question : 1867 A.D.**—There was one man in Europe to whom the triumph of Prussia caused deep anxiety and bitterness of spirit. That was the Emperor Napoleon III. The splendid military organization of the Prussians filled him with jealousy, and he longed to measure his strength with theirs, and his diplomacy with that of Bismarck. He secretly proposed to the King of Holland to purchase from him the grand-duchy of Luxemburg, as a make-weight against the increased power of Prussia. Bismarck heard of the scheme and objected to it. War seemed inevitable, when the Great Powers intervened and guaranteed the neutrality of Luxemburg.

**13. The Franco-Prussian War : 1870–71 A.D.**—The conflict was thus postponed—not avoided. Two years later, the emperor became uneasy about his own position and that of his dynasty in France. A plebiscite or popular vote on the question of an amended Constitution revealed to him the unpleasant fact that there was a great amount of dissatisfaction within the army. It became necessary to divert the minds of his people from home affairs by the excitement of a foreign war. A question relating to the Spanish crown afforded a suitable occasion. With the consent of Prussia, the vacant crown was accepted by a German prince—the Prince of Hohenzollern. This gave great offence to France. After the prince voluntarily withdrew, the French ambassador at Berlin required from King William a promise that he would never again permit his candidacy.

King William refused to discuss the matter, and referred the ambassador to his ministers. This was interpreted as an insult to France. There

was intense excitement in Paris, and war was declared.

**14. The new German Empire proclaimed: 1871 A.D.**—Napoleon plunged into the war in the full belief that the French army was in a thoroughly efficient state. He had been assured by his Minister of War that he could put into the field three hundred and fifty thousand men, fully equipped in all respects. He soon discovered that this fine



THE EMPEROR WILLIAM.

army existed only on paper. When he reached the frontier, he found that only two hundred and fifty thousand men were actually embodied, that the stores and ammunition were inadequate, and that the commissariat department was in confusion. Other miscalculations disconcerted him. He had fully counted on the aid both of Austria and of the South German States. He was disappointed. Austria held aloof from the contest. The Southern States joined Prussia. From that moment the union of Germany became a certainty. The success of the combined armies hastened its realization. While they were still encircling Paris, the Confederations of 1866 were abolished, and all the German States (Austria alone excepted) were combined in a new German Empire under the hereditary supremacy of Prussia. While Napoleon III. was a prisoner in Wilhelmshohe, King William of Prussia was

proclaimed Emperor of Germany at Versailles. Bismarck, to whom the grand result was mainly due, was rewarded with the rank and title of a Prince of the Empire.

#### NOTES.

§ 6. **Magenta.** The Emperor Napoleon III. commanded in the battle. The arrival of General M'Mahon at a critical moment turned the scale of victory. For this he was made a marshal, and received the title of Duke of Magenta.

14. **Wilhelmshöhe**, a fortress near Cassel, Prussia. In March 1871, he settled at Chislehurst, Kent, where he died in 1873.

The Emperor William died in March 1888, and was succeeded by his son as Frederick III. He died in June, and was succeeded by his son as William II.

**SUMMARY.—962-1806.** The Holy Roman Empire, which began with the crowning of Otto the Great at Rome, was brought to a close when the Emperor Francis II. abdicated the crown, and took the title of Emperor of Austria.—1848-50. Prussia tried unsuccessfully to wrest Schleswig and Holstein from Denmark.—1849. A National Assembly of Germany met at Frankfort.—1852. The Confederation of 1815 was revived; it included both Prussia and Austria.—1861. Victor Emmanuel of Sardinia was made King of Italy.—1864. Austria and Prussia defeated the Danes at Düppel.—1866. War broke out between Prussia and Austria. The North German Confederation was formed, with Prussia at its head.—1870-71. Napoleon III. provoked a war with Prussia. On the defeat of the French, all Germany was united in a new German Empire.

#### EMPERORS OF GERMANY.

William I., crowned.....A.D. 1871 | Frederic III.....March, 1888  
William II.....June, 1888

### CHAPTER IX.

#### THE AMERICAN CIVIL WAR.

**Central Point: The Battle of Gettysburg—July 1-3, 1863 A.D.**

**British History: Reign of Victoria—since 1837.**

1. **Industrial Development of America.**—When the Civil War broke out in the United States, they had reached a position of extraordinary prosperity. The census of 1860 showed a rate of growth and an industrial greatness which astonished not only the rest of the world, but even America herself. The three million British colonists who had thrown off the British yoke in 1775 had increased to nearly thirty-two million. The products of the soil were enormous. The cotton crop had more than doubled within the previous ten years. The grain crop was twelve hundred million bushels in the year. The tobacco crop had also doubled in ten years. The textile manufactures had



reached the annual value of forty million sterling. There were in the country one hundred and thirteen thousand schools and colleges, fifty-four thousand churches, and four thousand newspapers. The thirteen States had increased to thirty-four. The American people owned two thousand million acres of land, but as yet they had been able to make use of no more than one-fifth of it.

**2. The Question of Slavery.**—But there was a deadly taint on the industrial greatness of America, a taint which threatened to destroy the whole fabric if it were not got rid of. That taint was slavery. In the Southern States there were four million negro slaves. In the Southern cities men and women were bought and sold like cattle. Even in the capital slave-dealing was a lawful trade. The traffic was protected by the most cruel code of laws the world has ever seen. At the time of the Revolution, American feeling had been adverse to slavery; but when the demand for cotton increased with the invention of the steam-engine and of the spinning-frame, and when the power of producing it increased with the invention of the cotton-gin, the value of negro labour became enormous. The men of the Southern States, where alone it could be profitably employed, became passionately attached to the institution. It lay at the foundation of their social system, of their commercial system, of their wealth. Any one who spoke against slavery did so at the peril of his life. The North, with its colder climate and less prolific soil, was not well adapted for slave-labour; but there were capitalists in the North who were deeply committed to the system on which their gains depended.

**3. The Demand for Abolition: 1831 A.D.**—The crusade against slavery began about the year 1831, and it spread rapidly. The abolitionists were earnest, enthusiastic, resolute. The defenders of slavery were remorseless and vengeful. Naturally the slave party had its strength in the South, where the system flourished. As naturally, the abolitionists had their stronghold in the North. Thus the nation was divided into two hostile camps. For thirty years the contest raged. It became the grand and absorbing question of American politics. When new States were admitted into the Union, the question

was whether they should enter it as free States or as slave States. Finally, it was the issue on which the election of president turned.

4. **Election of President Lincoln : 1860 A.D.**—A new president fell to be chosen in 1860. For the most part the presidents of the Union had been Southerners, and the South had enjoyed the advantages arising from the possession of the control of the executive. The North, now thoroughly aroused, was determined that that state of matters should cease. The South claimed for slave-owners the right to settle in the Territories, carrying their slaves with them. The North resolved that slavery should be shut out for ever from the Territories of the Union. On that question the election of 1860 turned. The North won. Abraham Lincoln, who had been from his youth an ardent abolitionist, was elected President of the United States.

5. **Secession of Southern States.**—To the defeated slave-owners it seemed that they had now only one resource—namely, secession. They held it to be impossible for them to remain in a Union presided over by a man who had been chosen avowedly because of his abhorrence of slavery, and they resolved to secede from it. This brought into prominence another question which had often been debated :—Had any State the right to secede ? On this question, as on that of slavery, the North and the South took opposite sides. The North held that America was a nation formed by the voluntary junction of States, and made indissoluble by their agreement that it should be so. The South maintained that each individual State retained her sovereign right to withdraw at pleasure from the Union.

6. **The new Confederacy.**—In December 1860 South Carolina proclaimed her secession, and was at once followed by five other States—Georgia, Alabama, Mississippi, Louisiana, and Florida. A few months later, the revolted sisterhood was joined by five other States—Virginia, North Carolina, Tennessee, Arkansas, and Texas. These eleven States, covering an area of one million square miles, and with a population of six million whites and over three million negroes, broke away from the

Union and formed themselves into a new Confederacy, with a government of their own. Richmond, in Virginia, was chosen to be the capital of the new Union. The Confederate States declared their intention of maintaining with their arms their right to secede. The Government at Washington declared with equal determination their purpose to bring these men and their States forcibly back into the Union. Hence the Civil War.

**7. Attack on Fort Sumter: April 12, 1861 A.D.**—It will thus be seen that though the war was brought about by the constitutional question, whether a State was at liberty to secede from the Union, that question was raised by the question of slavery. The North entered into the conflict with the fixed determination, not only to compel the revolted States to return to the Union, but also to abolish slavery in all the States. The first shot of the war was fired in the bay of Charleston. That important city was guarded by Fort Sumter, of which the Confederates, as the Southern States were called, wished to possess themselves. They attacked the fort with shot and shell at daybreak on the 12th of April, and thus the fire was kindled which involved the destinies of a continent. The garrison of seventy, after exhausting their provisions and their ammunition, surrendered to an attacking force of seven thousand, and marched out with the honours of war. Though the heavy firing had lasted for thirty-four hours not a man on either side was injured! That was the first stroke of the fight.

**8. Battle of Bull Run: July 21, 1861 A.D.**—The North did not at first appreciate the enormous difficulty of the task she had undertaken. The Southern rising seemed to be nothing more than a gigantic riot, which she proposed to suppress in a few weeks. Misled by this ill-founded confidence, her imperfectly disciplined troops were ordered to attack the Southern army, which lay at Manassas Junction, on Bull Run, in Virginia. The battle was bravely fought, and the victory of the North seemed complete, when it was turned into defeat and shameful rout by the arrival on the field of Southern reinforcements.

9. This success raised the hopes of the Southerners to the highest pitch. It also revealed to the people of the North the

arduous character of the work they had undertaken ; but it did not diminish their resolution to accomplish it at all hazards. The Government called for volunteers, and the youth of the country, rich and poor alike, crowded into the ranks.

10. **M'Clellan's Failure: 1862 A.D.**—The next point at which the Federals aimed was to force a way to Richmond, the Confederate capital. General M'Clellan, who undertook



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this task, advanced to within a few miles of the city, when his heart failed him, and he beat a retreat. The Confederates, under General Lee, pursued him. On each of the seven days of the retreat there was a battle, resulting for the most part in Federal success. But though often repulsed Lee continued his pursuit till the Federals gained inglorious security beside their gunboats on the James River. It was at once seen that if the North was to accomplish its purpose, its armies must be placed under more energetic leadership. During the earlier years of the war, the Federals were unfortunate in their generals. M'Clellan, Burnside, and Hooker were tried in turn, and were in turn superseded. The Confederates, on the other

hand, had, almost from the first, in General Robert Lee a consummate soldier, and a man who was as cautious as he was brave.

11. **Grant's Capture of Vicksburg: July 4, 1863 A.D.**—The South was able to supply her people and her armies from her own resources; but she was dependent on foreign countries for her arms, her ammunition, her clothing, and her medicines. The North, having promptly proclaimed a blockade of the Southern ports, very soon took steps to make the blockade effective; and to the very end of the war it was rigorously maintained. The next step of the North was to secure New Orleans and to obtain possession of the Mississippi, so as to cut off Louisiana, Texas, and Arkansas from their allies on the eastern side of the great river. The capture of Vicksburg by General Grant in July 1863 settled the point. Thenceforth the Mississippi was firmly held by the Federal power, and the rebel territory was cut in two.

12. **Lee's Invasion of Pennsylvania: 1863 A.D.**—About the same time, the Federals under General Hooker were making tremendous efforts to capture Richmond. But Lee held them at bay. It was clear even to themselves that the resources of the Confederates were rapidly approaching exhaustion. The isolation of the South was almost complete. She was destitute of every article required for the prosecution of a great war. Yet the skill with which these failing resources were directed by General Lee sufficed to gain important advantages, and to shed lustre over a doomed cause. He repulsed with heavy loss every effort which was made in the direction of Richmond. So completely for the time had he established a supremacy over his assailants that he crossed the Potomac and followed them into Pennsylvania.

13. **Battle of Gettysburg: July 1-3, 1863 A.D.**—Then came the turning-point of the war. At the little town of Gettysburg the armies met and fought for three days. The Federals were commanded by General Meade, who had superseded Hooker only two days previously. On the first day Lee had some advantage. On the second day he had a still more decided success, having broken the line of the Federals on Cemetery

Hill, which was the key of their position. On the third day he gathered all his force for a decisive attack, which he hoped would make him master of the Northern States.

14. About noon the awful silence which had settled down on both armies was broken by a single cannon-shot, and the shriek of a Whitworth shell. At once the Confederates opened fire from one hundred and fifty guns. The Federal artillery replied, and for three hours a terrible torrent of shot and shell fell on either army, without any decisive result. Then Lee sent forth the columns which were to break the Federal centre. They marched steadily across the little intervening valley and up the opposite height, while terrific discharges of grape and shell smote but could not shake their ranks. On they swept swiftly and undismayed, up to the low stone wall which sheltered the Federals—up to the muzzles of the guns which had been cutting deep lanes in their ranks.

15. Lee, surrounded by his staff, watched from the opposite height the progress of the attack. Once when the smoke of battle was for a moment blown aside, he saw the Confederate flag waving within the enemy's lines. His officers congratulated him on a certain victory. Again the combatants were concealed by the cloud of smoke. When it lifted next, the Confederates were seen fleeing in confusion down the fatal slope, now thickly strewn with the bodies of their comrades. The attack had been repelled. The battle was lost. The Union was saved. Lee's business was now to save his army. He retreated at once, and the war was never again carried into Northern territory.

16. **Lee in the Wilderness: 1864 A.D.**—General Grant was now raised to the supreme command of the Federal forces, and was summoned eastward to direct the final campaign. From this time forward, the war was prosecuted on a settled plan, under which Meade, Sheridan, and Sherman co-operated with Grant. Lee retired to the Wilderness—a desolate region of Northern Virginia—and there awaited the enemy with sixty thousand men. On May 3rd, Grant crossed the Rapidan at the head of a magnificent army of one hundred and twenty

thousand veterans. Eight days of continuous fighting followed. Frightful losses were sustained. In one week Grant lost thirty thousand men, and Lee's losses were proportionately great. But Grant had ample resources from which to recruit his ranks, while those of the Confederates were utterly exhausted.

**17. Fall of Richmond: April 3, 1865 A.D.**—The final conflict took place around Petersburg, twenty miles south of Richmond. Grant's policy was to wear down his rival's strength by the continual attack of superior forces, taking care at the same time to cut off his supplies and to prevent the approach of reinforcements. The contest here stretched over ten weary months. It is to Lee's infinite credit that it lasted so long. Earthworks were thrown up so industriously on both sides that in the end the intrenchments extended to forty miles. Grant became afraid that Lee would give him the slip and renew the war in other fields. He prepared for an attack on the enfeebled Southern lines with overwhelming numbers. He stormed a fort in the centre of Lee's position, thus cutting his army in two, and making an immediate retreat inevitable. The rebel government fled from Richmond, and General Lee a few days afterwards laid down his arms at Appomattox Court-house. The North had triumphed. After four years of war the rebellion was quelled, and the authority of the Federal government was undisputed from the Atlantic to the Pacific, from the Great Lakes to the Gulf of Mexico.

**18. Abolition of Slavery: 1865 A.D.**—During the earlier period of the war, the slave question had caused some embarrassment to the Northern government. They were resolved that slavery should cease; but they thought it prudent to respect the sensibilities of those slave States, of which there were four, that had remained loyal to the Union. In September 1862, President Lincoln issued a proclamation, giving freedom to all slaves in those States that should still be in rebellion on New-Year's day 1863. This proclamation gave freedom to over three million slaves. In November 1864, Lincoln was re-elected to the Presidency by the largest majority ever known, General M'Clellan being his opponent. In February following,

a clause was added to the Constitution for ever prohibiting slavery within the United States. That was the result which Providence had brought out of a rebellion the avowed object of which was to establish slavery more firmly and extend it more widely.

**19. Assassination of Lincoln: 1865 A.D.**—President Lincoln was with the army when its final triumphs were gained, and he visited Richmond on the day of its surrender, walking through the streets with his little boy in his hand. No heart in all the rejoicing land was more thankful and more glad than his. A few days later he attended one of the Washington theatres, having been told that the people would be disappointed if he did not show himself in that public way. As the play went on, a fanatical adherent of the fallen Confederacy—an actor named Booth—made his way stealthily into the President's box. He crept close up to Lincoln, and holding a pistol within a few inches of his head, lodged a bullet deep in the brain. The President sat motionless, save that his head sank on his breast. He never regained consciousness: he lingered till morning and then passed away—a great man sealing with his life a great cause.

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#### NOTES.

§ 2. The Revolution, the War of Independence, terminated in 1783 by the recognition of the independence of the States by Great Britain.

4. The Territories, extensive regions between the Mississippi and the Rocky Mountains, recently settled. They return "delegates" to Congress, who are at liberty to speak, but not to vote.

10. General Robert Lee, born in 1808. He was at first an officer of engineers. During a visit to Europe in the time of the Crimean War, he was present at the siege of Sebastopol. At the outbreak of the rebellion he was appointed commander-in-chief of the Virginian forces. Died in 1870.

11. General Ulysses Grant, born in 1822. He was made President of the United States in 1868. Died in 1885.

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**SUMMARY.**—1831. In the Northern States a demand arose for the abolition of slavery.—1860. Lincoln, an abolitionist, was elected President by the North, which thus gained the ascendancy in the Union. The Southern States seceded, and formed a new Confederacy.—1861. An attack on Fort Sumter by the South began the war. The North was defeated at Bull Run.—1862. The Federals made an unsuccessful attempt to force a way to Richmond, the Confederate capital.—1863. Vicksburg was taken by General Grant.—1863. General Lee invaded Pennsylvania. *July 1-3.* The Battle of Gettysburg, won by the Federals, was the turning-point of the war.—1864. In the Wilderness of Virginia, Lee fought with the Federal generals for eight days.—1865. Richmond fell, and General Lee laid down his arms.—1865. Slavery was abolished in the United States. President Lincoln was murdered in a Washington theatre by an actor named Booth.



## GREAT NAMES OF THE EIGHTH PERIOD.

- MOZART (WOLFGANG AMADEUS).**—Born at Salzburg in Austria, 1756—a great musician—lived much at Vienna—chief works, “Don Giovanni,” “Le Nozze di Figaro,” and the celebrated “Requiem,” the last written on his death-bed—died of fever, 1792.
- MARMONTEL (JEAN FRANÇOIS).**—Born at Bort in Central France, 1723—a writer of dramas and romances—chief works, “Contes Moraux,” and “Belisaire”—died at Abbeville in 1799.
- SCHILLER (FRIEDRICH).**—Born at Marbach in Württemberg, 1759—made professor of history at Jena in 1789—the great dramatist of Germany—chief works, “William Tell,” and “Wallenstein”—wrote also a “History of the Thirty Years’ War”—died in May 1805.
- HAYDN (JOSEPH).**—Born near Vienna, 1732—a great musical genius—father of modern orchestral music—greatest work, “The Creation,” an oratorio—died 1809.
- WIELAND (CHRISTOPH).**—Born at Oberholzheim in Swabia, 1733—a leading German writer—chief poem, the epic romance of “Oberon,” published in 1780—best novel, “Agathon”—died 1813.
- HEYNE (CHRISTIAN GOTTLIEB).**—Born at Chemnitz in Saxony, 1729—a great classical scholar—professor in Göttingen University—published editions of Homer, Vergil, Pindar, etc.—died 1812.
- CANOVA (ANTONIO).**—Born at Possagno in the Venetian territory, 1757—a great sculptor—famous for his portraits of Popes, and for his groups, “Cupid and Psyche,” “Hercules and Lycas,” and the “Graces”—died 1822.
- HERSCHEL (SIR WILLIAM).**—Born in Hanover, 1738—a great astronomer—a bandman in the Hanoverian Guards—afterwards came to England—improved the reflecting telescope—discovered the planet Uranus in 1781—lived much at Slough, where he died, 1822.
- BYRON (GEORGE GORDON, LORD).**—Born at London, 1788—one of the leading British poets—his chief work is “Childe Harold’s Pilgrimage,” written in the Spenserian stanza—died at Missolonghi of fever, 1824.
- WEBER (KARL MARIA VON).**—Born in Holstein, 1786—a distinguished musician of the German school—his greatest work, “Der Freischütz,” was brought out in 1822 at Berlin—died at London, 1826.
- BEETHOVEN (LUDWIG VAN).**—Born at Bonn, 1770—considered by many the greatest of musicians—among his numerous works may be named the “Mount of Olives,” an oratorio; and “Fidelio,” an opera—died at Vienna, 1827.
- SCOTT (SIR WALTER).**—Born at Edinburgh, 1771—famed as a poet, and still more so as a novelist—began with a translation of Bürger’s “Lenore” and “Wild Huntsman”—chief poems, “Lady of the Lake,” “Lay of the Last Minstrel,” and “Marmion”—died 1832.
- GOETHE (JOHANN WOLFGANG VON).**—Born at Frankfort-on-the-Main, 1748—one of the most glorious names of Germany—chief works, “Sorrows of Werther,” “Wilhelm Meister’s Apprenticeship,” and “Faust”—died 1832.
- NIEBUHR (BARTHOLOMÆUS).**—Born at Copenhagen, 1776—a great historian—lectured at Berlin and Bonn—chief work, “History of Rome”—died 1831.
- OUVIER (GEORGE, BARON).**—Born, 1769, at Montbéliard (then in Württemberg, now in France)—remarkable as a naturalist—chief works, “Fossil Bones,” and the “Animal Kingdom”—died May 13, 1832.
- NODIER (CHARLES).**—Born at Besançon in the east of France, 1783—a poet and general writer—his “Napoléonne,” “Jean Sbagar,” and “Therese Hubert,” are well known—died 1844.
- MENDELSSOHN (FELIX).**—Born at Hamburg, 1809—a musician of the highest genius—chief works, his music for the “Midsummer Night’s Dream,” and his sublime oratorios, “St. Paul” and “Elijah”—died 1847.

- NEANDER (JOHANN).**—Born at Göttingen, 1780—professor of theology at Berlin—chief works, his “History of the Christian Church,” and “Life of Christ”—died 1850.
- TURNER (JOSEPH WILLIAM).**—Born at London, 1775—a celebrated English landscape painter—exhibited his first picture at the Royal Academy in his twelfth year—elected Royal Academician, 1802—his habits were eccentric, and he kept aloof from society—died at Chelsea, 1851, having bequeathed to the nation a large collection of his own paintings and drawings.
- BÉRANGER (JEAN PIERRE DE).**—Born at Paris, 1780—a noted lyric poet of France—he published five collections of songs—died 1857.
- HUMBOLDT (ALEXANDER, BARON VON).**—Born at Berlin, 1769—the greatest descriptive naturalist of our day—chief work, his “Kosmos,” an account of the physical phenomena of the universe—died 1859.
- BUNSEN (CHRISTIAN KARL, BARON).**—Born in Waldeck, Germany, 1791—a distinguished statesman and Orientalist—succeeded Niebuhr the historian as minister of Frederic III. of Prussia—Prussian ambassador in England, 1841—chief works, “Egypt’s Place in the World’s History,” “God in History,”—died 1860.
- FARADAY (MICHAEL).**—Born near London, 1791—a great chemist and natural philosopher—at first apprentice to a bookbinder—professor of chemistry in the Royal Institution, 1833—the highest authority of his time on electricity—wrote several chemical and physical treatises—died 1867.
- BREWSTER (SIR DAVID).**—Born at Jedburgh, 1781—an eminent natural philosopher—made important discoveries in optics—invented the kaleidoscope, 1816—made Principal of Edinburgh University, 1859—wrote a life of Newton, besides numerous scientific works—died 1868.
- LIEBIG (JUSTUS, BARON VON).**—Born at Darmstadt, 1803—an eminent chemist—professor at Munich—wrote much on the chemistry of agriculture and on physiology—died 1873.
- GUIZOT (FRANÇOIS PIERRE).**—Born at Nîmes, 1787—a great statesman and *littérateur*—chief works, “History of Civilization in France,” “History of the English Revolution,” and “Life of George Washington”—died 1874.
- EHRENBERG (CHRISTIAN GOTTFRIED).**—Born at Delitzsch in Saxony, 1795—a famous naturalist and microscopist—chief work, “Infusorial Animalcules”—died 1876.
- THIERS (LOUIS ADOLPHE).**—Born at Marseilles, 1797—an eminent historian and statesman—one of the most prominent names in French politics—author of “History of the French Revolution,” and “History of the Consulate and Empire”—died 1879.
- CARLYLE (THOMAS).**—Born in Dumfriesshire, 1795—a great historian and biographer—lived chiefly in London, where he became known as the “Sage of Chelsea”—his publication of “Cromwell’s Letters and Speeches” led to a revolution of opinion in favour of the Protector—chief works, “The French Revolution,” “Life of Frederic the Great,” “Sartor Resartus”—died 1881.
- DARWIN (CHARLES ROBERT).**—Born at Shrewsbury, 1809—a famous naturalist and geologist—devoted his life to the advancement of scientific research—propounded the theory of “Evolution” in nature—chief works, “The Voyage of a Naturalist,” “Origin of Species,” “Descent of Man”—died 1882.
- WAGNER (RICHARD).**—Born at Leipzig, 1813—a famous musical composer—appointed musical director of the Royal Theatre at Dresden—latterly had a theatre of his own at Baireuth—his music called “the music of the future”—chief works, the operas “Rienzi,” “Tannhäuser,” “Lohengrin”—died 1883.
- HUGO (VICTOR, VISCOUNT).**—Born at Besançon, 1802—a noted French poet and novelist—exiled for many years on account of his political opinions—returned to France after the fall of the empire—chief works, “Notre Dame de Paris,” “Napoleon the Little,” “Les Misérables,” “Ninety-three”—died 1885.

- DORÉ (GUSTAVE).**—Born at Strassburg, 1832—a noted French artist—illustrated the works of Dante and of Rabelais—his illustrations to “Don Quixote” and to “The Wandering Jew” are much admired—died 1883.
- RANKE (LEOPOLD).**—Born at Wiehe in Saxony, 1795—a great historian—professor at Berlin—chief work, “History of the Popes”—died 1886.
- TENNYSON (ALFRED, LORD).**—Born in Lincolnshire, 1809—a great English poet—succeeded Wordsworth as poet-laureate in 1850—chief works, “In Memoriam,” “The Idylls of the King,” “Locksley Hall”—died 1892.
- BROWNING (ROBERT).**—Born at Camberwell, London, 1812—a great English poet—chief works, “Paracelsus,” “Dramatic Lyrics,” “Men and Women,” “The Ring and the Book,” and several dramas—died 1889.
- HELMHOLTZ (HERMANN LOUIS).**—Born at Potsdam, 1821—an eminent natural philosopher—professor of physiology at Berlin—chief works, “On the Preservation of Force,” “Theory of the Impressions of Sound.”
- PASTEUR (LOUIS).**—Born in 1822—a great French chemist and microscopist—noted for his researches on fermentation and hydrophobia.

## CHRONOLOGY OF THE EIGHTH PERIOD.

EIGHTEENTH CENTURY—*continued.*

Assembly of the French Notables.....	A.D. 1787
Meeting of the States-General.....	1789
Opening of the first French Revolution.....	1789
Constituent Assembly begins to sit.....	June 17, 1789
Storming of the Bastille.....	July 14, 1789
The mob at Versailles.....	October 5, 1789
Death of Mirabeau.....	April 1791
Legislative Assembly begins to sit.....	October 1, 1791
Attack on the Tuileries.....	August 10, 1792
National Convention begins to sit.....	September 21, 1792
Battle of Jemappes.....	November 6, 1792
Louis XVI. of France guillotined.....	January 21, 1793
The Reign of Terror.....	1793
Final partition of Poland.....	1793
Execution of Robespierre.....	1794
Directory established.....	1795
Bonaparte scatters the National Guard.....	October 5, 1795
Battle at Bridge of Lodi.....	1796
Battle of Arcole.....	1796
Treaty of Campo Formio.....	1797
Battle of Aboukir.....	1798
Directory overturned: Bonaparte First Consul.....	1799
Passage of the Alps.....	May 1800
Battle of Marengo.....	June 14, 1800

## NINETEENTH CENTURY.

Union of Great Britain and Ireland.....	1801
Treaty of Lunéville.....	1801
Treaty of Amiens.....	1802
Napoleon made First Consul for life.....	1802
His scheme of invading England.....	1803
He is elected Emperor of the French.....	May 1804
Austria made an hereditary empire.....	1804
Battles of Trafalgar and Austerlitz.....	1805
Treaty of Pressburg.....	1805

Battles of Auerstädt and Jena .....	A.D. 1806
Battles of Eylau and Friedland .....	1807
Treaty of Tilsit .....	1807
Opening of the Peninsular War .....	1808
Battle of Wagram .....	1809
Treaty of Schönbrunn .....	1809
Napoleon, being excommunicated, imprisons the Pope .....	1809
Napoleon marries Maria Louisa of Austria .....	1810
Birth of Napoleon II. (Duke of Reichstadt) .....	1811
The terrible Russian Campaign .....	1812
Battles of Lützen, Bautzen, Vitoria, and Leipsic .....	1813
The Allies enter Paris: Abdication of Napoleon .....	1814
Battle of Waterloo .....	June 18, 1815
Second Treaty of Paris .....	1815
Revolution in Spain .....	1820
Rising of Ypsilanti in Moldavia .....	1821
Greek congress at Epidaurus .....	1822
Brazil severed from Portugal .....	1822
Accession of Charles X. of France .....	1824
Fall of Missolonghi .....	1826
Battle of Navarino .....	1827
Second French Revolution .....	1830
Revolutions in Belgium and Poland .....	1830
Otto made king of Greece .....	1832
Reform Bill passed in England .....	1832
Attempt of Louis Napoleon at Strassburg .....	1836
Accession of Queen Victoria .....	1837
Attempt of Louis Napoleon at Boulogne .....	1840
Repeal of the British corn laws .....	1846
Pio Nono elected Pope .....	1846
Third French Revolution .....	1848
Revolution in Milan .....	1848
Louis Napoleon made President .....	1848
War between Hungary and Servia .....	1848
Francis Joseph, emperor of Austria .....	1848
Hungary and Austria at war .....	December 1848
Rome besieged and taken by the French .....	1849
Hungarian independence declared .....	April 14, 1849
Battle of Temeswar: Hungarians routed by Haynau .....	1849
Death of Louis-Philippe .....	1850
Great Exhibition in London .....	1851
Louis Napoleon's coup d'état .....	December 2, 1851
He is elected Emperor Napoleon III. .....	December 1852
Opening of the Crimean War .....	1854
Battles of Alma, Balaklava, and Inkermann .....	1854
Capture of Sebastopol .....	1855
Battles of Magenta and Solferino .....	1859
Secession of States from the American Union .....	1860
Formation of the Confederacy of Southern States .....	1861
Abolition of Russian serfage .....	1861
Kingdom of Italy founded .....	1861
American Civil War begins .....	1861
Battle of Gettysburg: Federal ascendancy .....	July 1-3, 1863
The Ionian Islands ceded to Greece by Great Britain .....	1864
Denmark loses the Three Duchies .....	1864
General Lee capitulates .....	1865
Assassination of President Lincoln .....	1865
Slavery abolished in the United States .....	1865

Seven Weeks' War (Prussia and Austria) .....	A.D. 1866
Second English Reform Act .....	1867
Isabella of Spain dethroned .....	1868
Suez Canal opened for traffic .....	1869
French Atlantic cable laid between Brest and St. Pierre .....	1869
France declares war against Prussia .....	July 1870
Surrender of Napoleon III. at Sedan .....	September 1870
French Republic proclaimed .....	1870
Prince Amadeo of Italy elected King of Spain .....	1871
Surrender of Paris to the Prussians .....	January 1871
Peace of Frankfort: Prussia gains Alsace and part of Lorraine .....	1871
King William of Prussia proclaimed Emperor of Germany .....	1871
Communist insurrection in Paris .....	March to May 1871
Mont Conis Tunnel opened for traffic .....	1871
Carlist war in Spain .....	1872
Death of Napoleon III. ....	1873
Abdication of Amadeo of Spain: Republic proclaimed .....	1873
Alfonso, prince of the Asturias, king of Spain .....	1875
Insurrection of Turkish Christian subjects .....	1875
Bulgarian revolt cruelly suppressed .....	1876
Queen Victoria proclaimed Empress of India .....	1877
Russia declares war with Turkey .....	1877
Treaty of Berlin .....	1878
Humbert I., king of Italy .....	1878
British war with the Zulus .....	1879
Alexander II. of Russia murdered by Nihilists .....	1881
St. Gothard Tunnel opened for traffic .....	1881
President Garfield dies of a shot-wound .....	1881
Death of Garibaldi .....	1882
British war in the Soudan .....	1883
Third Reform Act passed in England .....	1884
Death of General Gordon at Khartoum .....	1885
Death of William I. of Germany .....	March 1888
Death of Frederick III. of Germany .....	June 1888
Abdication of Milan, King of Servia .....	1889
The Brazilian Empire changed into a Republic .....	1889
Heligoland ceded to Germany by Great Britain .....	1890
Protectorate of Zanzibar granted to Great Britain .....	1890
Death of Mohammed Tewfik, the Khedive of Egypt .....	1892
Extension of French territory in Siam .....	1893
The Duke of Edinburgh became Duke of Saxe-Coburg-Gotha .....	1893
War in Corea, between China and Japan .....	1894

## Geographical Appendix.

- Aar**, a tributary of the Rhine (left bank), which drains Northern and Central Switzerland.
- Aboukir**, a bay at the western mouth of the Nile, in Africa. It was the scene of Nelson's victory over the French fleet in August 1798.
- Acro**, or **Ptolemais**, a fortified sea-port on the coast of Syria, near the foot of Mount Carmel. It is famous for the number of its great sieges:—1104, by the Crusaders; 1187, by the Saracens; 1191, by the Crusaders; 1291, by the Saracens; 1799, by Napoleon I.; 1832, by Ibrahim Pasha; 1840, by the British.
- Adda**, a river of Lombardy, Italy, flowing through Lake Como into the Po. On it is the Bridge of Lodi, famous for Napoleon's victory in 1796.
- Adrianople**, a city of old Thrace, on the Maritza; 130 miles north-west of Constantinople; now the second town in Turkey. Here, in 378, the Romans were defeated by the Goth Frigidern, and the Emperor Valens was slain.
- Africa**.—The spread of the Moslems along its northern shores, and the events of the later Crusades, are the chief points of interest in the history of Africa during the Middle Ages. In modern times negro slavery has become sadly associated with the name of this continent.
- Aix-la-Chapelle** (once *Aquis Granum*; in German, *Anchen*), a city of Rhenish Prussia; 34 miles south-west of Cologne. It was the capital of Charles the Great, who was both born and buried here. Two treaties (one of 1668, another of 1748) bear its name.
- Ajaccio**, a sea-port in the west of Corsica, off the Italian coast. Here Napoleon Bonaparte was born in 1769. Corsica was sold by the Genoese to Louis XV. of France.
- Akaba**, a Syrian fortress, on the north-east prong of the Red Sea. Its conquest by the Moslems opened their way to Mount Sinai and Africa.
- Albi**, a town of Languedoc, France, on the Tarn, from which the Protestants of Southern France were called Albigenses.
- Alcántara**, a Spanish city in Estremadura, nearly 200 miles from Madrid. It means in Moorish "the bridge." It gave its name to an order of knighthood.
- Alemannia**, an ancient duchy, south-east of Alsace, comprising the modern Baden, Württemberg, and part of Switzerland.
- Aleppo**, a town of Northern Syria, at an equal distance from the Mediterranean and the Euphrates.
- Alessandria**, a city of Piedmont, Italy, on the Tanaro. Near it is the battle-field of Marengo.
- Alexandria**, a city of Northern Africa; 14 miles from the most westerly mouth of the Nile, opposite the island of Pharos. In Vespasian's time, it was the second Roman city, and is now the great port of Egypt.
- Algiers**, a country of North Africa, corresponding to the old Numidia. Taken by the Vandals, who were expelled by Belisarius in 534. The city was attacked by Charles V. in 1541; bombarded by the British in 1816; and in 1830 taken by the French, who conquered the country.
- Alhama**, a town of Granada, Spain, on the Frio; 24 miles south-west of Granada. It was taken from the Moors in 1482.
- Alkmaar**, a town of North Holland, on the Helder Canal, north-east of Haarlem. Here the Duke of Alva was defeated in 1573.
- Alma**, a river in the west of the Crimea, Russia; noted for the victory of the French and British over the Russians in 1854.

**Almanza**, a town of Murcia in the south-east of Spain. Here, in 1707, the troops of Louis XIV. defeated the Spaniards and their allies, thus winning the crown of Spain for Philip V.

**Alsace** (now *Elsass*), a German province west of the Rhine. It was ceded to France by the treaty of Westphalia, 1648, but was restored to Germany by the treaty of Frankfort, 1871.

**Altorf**, a town of Switzerland, at the southern end of Lake Lucerne. It is the capital of the canton of Uri, and is noted as the scene of Tell's famous shot.

**Amalfi**, a sea-port of South Italy, on the Gulf of Salerno. A thriving centre of trade in the Middle Ages. Here the Pandects of Justinian were discovered.

**Ambolse**, a town of Central France, on the Loire; 14 miles east of Tours. Here, in 1560, a conspiracy was formed by Condé and others to crush the family of Guise.

**America**.—It is said that America was known to the Icelanders about 1000 A.D.; but only after 1492 did the New World begin to figure in history. Spain became the possessor of nearly all South America and a large part of the Northern Continent; but the various states have since secured their independence. The greatest event in North American history is the acknowledgment of the independence of the United States by Britain in 1783.

**Amiens**, a town of Northern France, on the Somme, which gave its name to the hollow peace of 1802.

**Amsterdam**, the capital of the Netherlands, on the Y, an arm of the Zuyder Zee.

**Ancona**, a sea-port on the bend of the Italian coast, opposite Dalmatia.

**Angora**, a city of Northern Galatia, in Asiatic Turkey, where, in 1402, Bajazet was defeated by Tamerlane.

**Antioch** (now *Antakia*), a large city in Northern Syria, on the Orontes. It was besieged and taken by the first Crusaders. There was another Antioch in Pisidia, Asia Minor.

**Antwerp**, the first sea-port of Belgium, on the Scheldt; noted for its capture in 1585 by the Duke of Parma; bombarded in 1832 by the French.

**Appomattox**, in the middle of Virginia, United States. There the Confederate general Lee laid down his arms, April 9, 1865.

**Aquileia** (now *Aglar*), a town on the peninsula of Istria, belonging to Austria; near the head of the Adriatic.

**Aquis Granum**. See *Aix-la-Chapelle*.

**Aquitaine**, a former duchy of France, in the south and west. It extended from the Loire to the Pyrenees, and included Guienne, Poitou, and other provinces.

**Archangel**, a port on the Dwina, in Northern Russia; 400 miles north-east of St. Petersburg.

**Arcole**, an Italian village in Venetia, on a tributary of the Adige. Here Napoleon defeated the Austrians in 1796.

**Arezzo** (once *Arretium*), a town of Central Italy; 3 miles from the Arno; famed as the birth-place of Guido the musician, and of Petrarch the poet.

**Arles**, a French town, on a hill above the Rhône; 44 miles north-west of Marseilles. It is noted for its Roman antiquities.

**Arques**, a town of Northern France; 3 miles south-east of Dieppe. Here Henry IV. defeated Mayenne in 1589.

**Ascalon**, a fortress on the shore of Palestine; 45 miles south-west of Jerusalem. The scene of many battles during the first three Crusades. Its defences were destroyed by Saladin in 1191.

**Asia**.—The great mountain-wall of Imaus (the modern Bolor Tagh and Suliman ranges) has kept the half-civilized Mongols to the east of the continent; but west of Imaus great changes have taken place since the fall of Rome. Mahometanism sprang up in Arabia and spread beyond the Indus. The Turks pushed their way into Europe; and in Palestine the Crusades brought West and East into closer contact. The occupation of India by the British has been the greatest event of later Asiatic history.

**Asturias**, wooded mountains in the north of Spain, a westward continuation of the Pyrenees. The northern slope forms the province of Asturias. Here the West Goths took refuge when driven northward by the Saracens.

**Atlas**, a range of mountains skirting the northern shore of Africa.

**Attalia**, a town on the south coast of Asia Minor.

**Auerstädt**, a town of Saxony, Germany; 20 miles north of Jena. Here the Prussians were defeated in 1806.

**Augsburg**, a town of Bavaria, Germany; 35 miles west of Munich. Here, in 1530, Melancthon read the Protestant Confession of Faith.

**Austerlitz**, in Moravia, Austria; 70 miles north-east of Vienna. Here the Emperors of Russia and Austria were de-

feated by Napoleon in December 1805. This broke up the coalition against France.

**Austrasia**, or East Frankland, an old kingdom including chiefly the basin of the Rhine. Its capital under Charles the Great was Aix-la-Chapelle.

**Austria and Hungary**. — **Austria** (East March) was a little dukedom in the time of the Crusades. The Habsburgs became Archdukes of Austria in 1278, and having gained the imperial crown of Germany, they never let it leave their family. In 1804 the Emperor of Germany exchanged that title for the present one, Emperor of Austria. Hungary was at one time a great kingdom, stretching from the Carpathians to the Adriatic. Now Austria and Hungary are united.

**Autun** (once *Augustodunum*), a town of France, near Lyons. It was a scene of the fifth persecution of Christians.

**Auvergne**, an old province of France, comprising the modern departments of Puy de Dôme and Cantal.

**Avignon**, a town of Southern France, near the mouth of the Rhône. Here the popes held their court from 1309 to 1376.

**Azoff**, a fortress in the south of Russia, on the Don, about 20 miles from its mouth. Taken by Peter the Great from the Turks in 1696.

**Azores**, a group of islands in the North Atlantic Ocean; 800 miles west from Portugal.

**Bagdad**, a city of Asiatic Turkey, on the west bank of the Tigris, founded in 762 by the Caliph Al Mansur. This brilliant capital of the Abbasides was destroyed by the Mongols in 1258.

**Bahamas**, nearly 500 islands, in the West Indies, south-east of North America. Most of them are uninhabited. *San Salvador*, where Columbus landed October 12, 1492, was long held to be Cat Island, but is now known to be Watlings, more to the south-east.

**Balaklava**, a port of Russia in the south-west of the Crimea; 6 miles from Sebastopol. Near it a battle was fought in 1854, when the famous charge of the Light Cavalry Brigade took place.

**Balkans**, a range of mountains in the south-east of European Turkey. They form the southern boundary of Bulgaria.

**Barcelona**, a sea-port of Catalonia in the north-east of Spain. Here Columbus

visited Ferdinand and Isabella on his return from discovering America.

**Basel**, a town in the north of Switzerland, at the point where the Rhine turns north. It was the seat of a great council of the Church from 1431 to 1449.

**Bassora**, a city of Asiatic Turkey, near the mouth of the Euphrates. It was founded by the Caliph Omar, and became a great centre of commerce.

**Bautzen**, a town of Saxony, Germany; 30 miles from Dresden. Here Napoleon defeated the Russians and the Prussians in 1813.

**Bavaria**. — Next to Prussia, this is the most important state in Germany. The principal territory lies to the east of Baden and Württemberg. Part of the old Palatinate of the Rhine, on the north-east of France, also belongs to Bavaria.

**Bayonne**, a town in Low Pyrenees, France, 4 miles from the Bay of Biscay. It was fortified by Vauban, and here the bayonet was invented. Alva and Catherine of Medici had a meeting at Bayonne in 1565.

**Beder**, a valley south-west of Medina, in Turkish Arabia, where Mahomet won his first victory, defeating his enemies of the tribe Koreish.

**Belgium**. See *Netherlands*.

**Bender**, now a Russian town, on the Dniester; 58 miles from the Black Sea. Here Charles XII. withdrew after the battle of Pultowa. Sacked by the Russians in 1770, and taken by them in 1809.

**Beresina**, a western tributary of the Dniester, in Russia, where Napoleon's army suffered terribly in its retreat from Moscow.

**Berg**, a duchy in Western Germany, along the east bank of the Rhine. This, with other territories, was given to Murat in 1806, with the title of Grand-Duke.

**Berlin**, the capital of Prussia, on the Spree. It was entered by the Russians and Austrians in 1760, and by Napoleon in 1806. From it Napoleon issued his decree against trade with Britain.

**Beyrout**, a town of Syria, near Damascus; one of the chief cities of maritime Phœnicia. It was taken by the knights of the Fourth Crusade.

**Béziers**, a town of Languedoc, in France; 8 miles from the Mediterranean. The scene of a massacre during the Albigensian war in 1209.

**Bidassoa**, a river flowing from the Pyrenees into the Bay of Biscay, and forming



- part of the line between France and Spain.
- Bithynia**, a province of Asia Minor, lying partly on the Sea of Marmora and partly on the Euxine. The scene of the third persecution of Christians.
- Black Forest**, a range of mountains in Germany, east of the Rhine, between Baden and Würtemberg.
- Blenheim**, a village of West Bavaria, in Germany, on the Danube; 33 miles north-east of Ulm. Here Marlborough won a brilliant victory over the French in 1704.
- Blots**, a city of Central France, on the Loire, south-west of Orleans. Here Mary of Medici, mother of Louis XIII., lived in exile for two years.
- Bohemia**, an ancient kingdom, now forming part of the Austro-Hungarian empire. It was occupied by a Slavonian tribe about 550. The crown passed to the Austrian royal family in 1526.
- Bologna** (once *Bononia*), a town of Central Italy, south of the Po; capital of the former province of Romagna. During the Middle Ages one of the strongest of the Italian republics, a great supporter of the Lombard League, and the seat of a famous law school and university.
- Borodino**, a village in Russia, on the Moskwa; 75 miles south-west of Moscow. Here Kutusoff and Napoleon fought in 1812, while the latter was on his way to Moscow.
- Bosnia**, a province in the north-west of European Turkey. Since 1878 the government of Bosnia has been administered by Austria-Hungary.
- Bouillon**, or **Boulogne**, a small duchy in the south-east of Belgium. Godfrey of Bouillon was the great captain of the First Crusade.
- Boulogne**, a port of Northern France, on the English Channel. Here Napoleon gathered a flotilla for the invasion of England in 1804.
- Bourges**, a town of Central France, at the confluence of the Auron and the Yèvre. Here Calvin studied law.
- Braavalla**, a heath in East Gothland, Sweden; the scene of a battle in 740 between the Danish king, Harold Godtooth, and Sigurd Ring, king of Sweden.
- Brabant**, a district of the Central Netherlands, of which part (North Brabant) belongs to Holland and part (South Brabant) to Belgium. It was long a duchy under the successors of Charles the Great.
- Brandenburg**, a town of Prussia, on the Havel; 37 miles south-west of Berlin. The electorate of Brandenburg has expanded into the kingdom of Prussia.
- Brazil**—First colonized by the Portuguese; constituted a kingdom in 1815, and an empire in 1822; its independence was acknowledged by Portugal in 1825.
- Breisach**, a town of Baden, Germany, on the Rhine, between Strassburg and Basel. It was ceded to France in 1648, but was afterwards restored to Baden.
- Bremen**, a free town of Germany; 50 miles from the mouth of the Weser. It was a leading city of the Hanseatic League.
- Breslau**, the capital of Silesia, Germany, on the Oder; 190 miles south-east of Berlin. It was besieged twice during the Seven Years' War.
- Brest**, an important naval station in the extreme north-west of France.
- Bretagne**, or **Brittany**, an old province in the north-west of France; said to have got its name from the Britons who settled there in the sixth century, when driven out of Britain by the Saxons.
- Brienne**, a town of Champagne, France, near the Aube; noted for its military school, where Napoleon I. was educated.
- Brille**, at the mouth of the Meuse, in South Holland. It was seized by the Water Beggars in 1572; is remarkable as the birth-place of Van Tromp and De Witt, the admirals.
- Brusa**, a city of Bithynia, Asia Minor, near the Euxine. It was taken by the Turkish Sultan Urchan in 1326.
- Brussels**, the capital of Belgium, on the Senne, a feeder of the Dyle. A revolution took place here in 1830, which ended in the separation of Belgium from Holland.
- Buda**, forming, with Pesth, the capital of Hungary. The towns face each other on opposite banks of the Danube, Buda being on the west side. It is 130 miles south-east of Vienna.
- Bulgaria**, a principality of south-eastern Europe, tributary to Turkey; separated from Roumania by the Danube. The scene of the Bulgarian massacres of 1876.
- Bull Run**. See *Manassas Junction*.
- Burgos**, the capital of Old Castile, in Spain, on the Arlançon. Birth-place of the Cid.
- Burgundy**.—This kingdom broke off from France in 879, under the name Arles, or Lower Burgundy, which contained the upper basins of Rhône and Saône. In 934 it was joined by Rudolf II. to Upper Burgundy; and the kingdom expanded

- to the delta of the Rhône, and over a great part of Switzerland. But in 1082 the stronger power of Germany absorbed it.
- Byzantium, or Constantinople**, the Turkish capital, on the European side of the Bosphorus. It took its name from Byzas, a Thracian chief of the seventh century B.C. Here Constantine fixed the capital of the Eastern Empire in 330. The Moslems vainly besieged it. The Crusaders took it in 1203. In 1453 it fell into the hands of the Turks. Called by them *Stamboul*.
- Cadiz** (once *Gades*), a town on the southwest coast of Andalusia, Spain.
- Caen**, the capital of Lower Normandy, in France, on the Orne; 9 miles from the English Channel. Here William the Conqueror was buried.
- Cæsarea** (now *Kaisariyeh*), an old Roman town on the coast of Palestine; 26 miles south-west of Acre. Taken by the Saracens, 635, and by the Crusaders, 1101.
- Calabria**, the most southerly part of Italy. It forms a long peninsula, and is separated from Sicily by the Strait of Messina.
- Calatrava**, a fortress on the Guadiana, in Spain. It gave its name to one of the three military orders of Spain.
- Calmar**, a town of Sweden, on the west of Småland, opposite the island of Oeland. Here was held a congress of the three northern nations (Denmark, Sweden, Norway) in 1397, when the famous Union of Calmar was signed.
- Cambray**, a strongly fortified town of Northern France, on the Scheldt. Here, in 1529, the Treaty of Cambray, between Charles V. and Francis I., was framed.
- Campo Formio**, a village of Northern Italy, at the head of the Adriatic. It gave its name to the treaty between France and Austria concluded in 1797.
- Canaries**, a group of islands in the Atlantic, off the north-west coast of Africa; belonging to Spain.
- Cannes**, a port of France, on the Mediterranean, near which Napoleon landed from Elba in 1815.
- Canossa**, a strong castle in Italy, on the Apennines, near Reggio. Here, in 1077, Pope Gregory VII. forced the Emperor Henry IV. to wait in the court-yard for three days, bare-footed and in hair-cloth.
- Cape of Good Hope**.—This cape, in the south of Africa, was doubled, and the passage to India was discovered, by Vasco da Gama in 1497. It was formerly called
- “Cape of Storms;” but after it had been doubled, the King of Portugal called it “Cape of Good Hope.”
- Cappel**, a Swiss battle-field of the Reformation time, where Zwingli was killed in 1531.
- Carcassonne**, a city of Languedoc, Southern France, on the Aude; noted for its brave defence by the Albigenses in 1209.
- Carthage**, on the north coast of Africa, near Tunis. It was for more than a century the greatest rival of Rome.
- Castile**, Old and New, two provinces of Central Spain, which formed a kingdom in the Middle Ages.
- Caxamarca**, a city of Peru, in South America, where Pizarro massacred the guards of the Inca.
- Cenis, Mont**, a summit of the Alps between France and Italy; 11,000 feet above sea-level. The railway tunnel through it was opened in 1871.
- Chalibar**, the Jewish capital of Northern Arabia, where, after taking the town, Mahomet was nearly killed by eating poisoned food.
- Chalcedon**, a city of Bithynia, in Asia Minor, on the Bosphorus, where the Fourth General Council met in 451.
- Chalons**, a town of Northern France, on the Marne. The scene of Attila's defeat by a Roman and Gothic army in 451.
- Charleroi**, a fortified town of Belgium, on the Sambre.
- Charleston**, the capital of South Carolina, North America; 7 miles from the Atlantic.
- Chartres**, a town of Northern France, near Paris, on the Eure. Here is one of the finest cathedrals in France.
- Chios**. See *Scio*.
- Cilicia**, an ancient division of Asia Minor; bounded by the Taurus Mountains on the north, and by the Mediterranean on the south. Tarsus was its capital.
- Claremont**, a palace in the county of Surrey, England. Here Louis-Philippe died in 1850.
- Clermont**, a town of Central France, on a branch of the Allier. Here a council met in 1095 to stir up the First Crusade.
- Cologne** (once *Colonia*), a fortified city of Prussia, capital of the Rhine province; on the Rhine, due east of Brussels. Its Gothic cathedral is one of the finest buildings in Europe.
- Constance**, a town of Switzerland, on the southern shore of Lake Constance or Bodensee. Here (1414–18) sat the famous

- Council by whose sentence John Huss and Jerome of Prague were burned.
- Constantinople.** See *Byzantium*.
- Copenhagen,** the capital of Denmark, in the east of Zealand, but partly on the island of Amager. Though strongly fortified, it was taken in 1801 by the British fleet under Nelson; in 1807 it was bombarded, and the Danish fleet was taken to England.
- Cordova** (once *Corduba*), a town of Spain, on the Guadalquivir. The centre of the Saracen dominion after 756, when its university, famous in Roman days, was revived. It was taken by the Spaniards in 1236.
- Orcy,** a French village; 95 miles north-west of Paris. The scene of a famous English victory in 1346.
- Oresfeld,** a town of Prussia; 12 miles north-west of Düsseldorf. Here the Duke of Brunswick, commanding an army of British and Hanoverians, defeated the French in 1758.
- Orepy,** a town of France, in the department of Oise, near Paris. It gave its name to a treaty in 1544, between Charles V. and Francis I.
- Crimea,** a peninsula on the south of Russia, stretching southward into the Black Sea. Here, from 1854 to 1856, a war was carried on between Russia on the one side, and Great Britain, France, and Turkey on the other.
- Cuba,** an island in the West Indies, discovered by Columbus on his first voyage in 1492.
- Ufa,** a city in Asiatic Turkey, on the western bank of the Euphrates, which was for a time the capital of the Caliphs. Here Ali was assassinated in 661.
- Ouzoo,** a town in Southern Peru, South America, more than 11,000 feet above the sea. It was taken by Pizarro.
- Cyprus,** an island in the east of the Mediterranean, transferred to Great Britain by Turkey in 1878.
- Dacia,** a Roman province, between the Danube and the Carpathians. It comprehended the modern Transylvania, Wallachia, Moldavia, and part of Hungary.
- Dago,** an island of Russia, in the Baltic Sea, near the entrance of the Gulf of Finland.
- Dalmatia,** a strip along the eastern shore of the Adriatic; a part of old Illyricum, now belonging to Austria.
- Damascus,** a town of Northern Syria; one of the oldest cities of the world. Famous for its manufacture of sword-blades, first instituted by Diocletian.
- Damietta,** a sea-port of Egypt, at the eastern mouth of the Nile, taken by St. Louis during the Seventh Crusade.
- Danzic,** a port of Russia, at the mouth of the Vistula. One of the early leaders of the Hanseatic League.
- Debreczin,** on a sandy plain, in Austria-Hungary; 116 miles east of Pesth.
- Delft,** a town in South Holland, 9 miles north-west of Rotterdam. Here William the Silent was murdered in 1584.
- Delhi,** a town of British India, on the Jumna, a tributary of the Ganges. Taken by Tamerlane in 1398. It was long the Mahometan capital of India, and the seat of the Great Moguls (the Tartar emperors), whose dynasty began in 1525.
- Denmark.**—Occupied in early times by the *Dansker*, a Gothic tribe. Denmark for a long time played an important part in the affairs of Northern Europe. By the Treaty of Calmar in 1397 the kingdoms of Norway and Sweden were united to Denmark.
- Dethmold,** the capital of Lippe-Dethmold, Germany; 47 miles south-west of Hanover.
- Dettingen,** a village of Bavaria, Germany, on the Main; 16 miles south-east of Frankfurt. Here George II. of England, leading his troops in person, defeated the French in 1743.
- Dorylæum,** a city of Phrygia, Asia Minor, on the river Thymbris. It was the scene of a great cavalry battle in the First Crusade, 1097.
- Dresden,** the capital of Saxony, Germany, on the Elbe; 100 miles south-east of Berlin. In August 1813, Napoleon won a great victory under its walls. It is a great centre of literature and education.
- Dreux,** a town of France; 45 miles south-west of Paris; where the first battle in the Huguenot war was fought in 1562.
- Dunkirk,** a sea-port in the extreme north of France. It was taken from Spain in 1658, and given up to Cromwell; but in 1662 it was sold to France by Charles II. of England.
- Durazzo** (formerly *Dyrrachium*, capital of Epirus), a town of Upper Albania, in Turkey, on the Ionian Sea. Scene of a battle between the Norsemen and the Byzantine troops, 1081.

**Edessa** (now *Orfa*), the capital of Mesopotamia, in Asiatic Turkey. It was famous in the Middle Ages for the manufacture of shields and armour.

**Eger**, a town in the north-west of Bohemia, Austria. Here Wallenstein was murdered in 1634.

**Egypt**.—In 1332 Egypt was ruled by a Circassian slave, who founded a Mameluke dynasty that lasted till 1517. The country then fell before the Turks, who made it a tributary republic. In 1798 Napoleon I. invaded Egypt. In 1811 Mehemet Ali overthrew the Mamelukes. War arose between Turkey and Egypt in 1832; Mehemet's son, Ibrahim Pasha, defeated the Turkish armies. The strife was closed by the intervention of the European powers.

**Eisenach**, a town in Upper Saxony, Germany, on the Nesse. Here Luther went to school.

**Eisleben**, a town of Saxony, Germany; 16 miles north-west of Halle. The birth-place of Luther.

**Elba** (once *Iva*), a small island off the coast of Tuscany, Italy; famous as the prison of Napoleon I., from May 1814 to February 1815.

**Elsass**. See *Alsace*.

**Epidaurus**, once a celebrated city of the Peloponnesus, Greece, on the shore of the Saronic Gulf; now a mere village. Here the Greeks held a national congress in 1822.

**Epirus**, meaning "the mainland," a country in the north-west of Greece. So called to distinguish it from the islands off the coast.

**Eresburg**, a fortress of Saxony, Germany, taken by Charles the Great.

**Erfurt**, a town of Prussian Saxony, on the Gera. Luther spent four years at the university here.

**Eylau**, a town of East Prussia; 22 miles south of Königsberg. Here was fought a drawn battle between Napoleon and the Russians in 1807.

**Ferrara**, an Italian city; 4 miles south of the Po; only seven feet above sea-level.

**Flanders**. See *Netherlands*.

**Florence** (Ital. *Firenze*), a city of Italy, on the Arno, was a Roman colony founded by Sylla; became a famous Italian republic; destroyed in the sixth century by the Goths under Totila. Its most brilliant days were under the Medici. Formerly capital of the archduchy of

Tuscany; from 1864 till 1870 capital of Italy. It has the finest art collections in Europe.

**Fontainebleau**, a town of France; 35 miles south-east of Paris; celebrated for its palace and forest. Here, in 1814, Napoleon signed his first abdication.

**Fontenaille**, near Auxerre, in Burgundy, France. Here, in 841, was fought a battle between Lothar and his brothers Charles and Louis.

**Fontenoy**, a village of Hainault, Belgium. Here the British, Dutch, and Austrians were defeated by the French in 1745.

**France** (the land of the Franks).—After the time of Charles the Great a number of independent duchies grew up around the Frankish kingdom, which were gradually absorbed by the central power. Chief of these were Aquitaine, Burgundy, and Bretagne. The English, too, held a large part of France for four centuries (1066-1450). Under the houses of Valois and Bourbon France grew strong. Napoleon I. extended her frontiers greatly, but they have been brought back to their natural limits.

**Franche-Comté**, an old province in the east of France, now divided into the departments Haute-Saône, Doubs, and Jura.

**Franconia**, a district of Germany, drained by the Main and the Rezat. It now forms part of Bavaria.

**Frankfort-on-the-Main**, a town in Hesse-Nassau, Germany. It was the seat of the old German Diet.

**Frankfort-on-the-Oder**, a town in Brandenburg, Prussia, south-east of Berlin. Here Tetzl issued his counter theses in opposition to Luther.

**Friedrichshall**, a port of Norway, at the bend of the Skager Rack; 58 miles south-east of Christiania. Here, in 1718, Charles XII. of Sweden was killed.

**Frejus**, a small town in the south-east of France, on the Mediterranean. Here Napoleon was taken on board the British ship *Undaunted* for Elba, 1814.

**Friedland**, a town of East Prussia, on the Aller; 27 miles south-east of Königsberg. Noted for a defeat of the Russians by Napoleon in 1807.

**Gaeta**, a port of Italy; 41 miles north-west from Naples; where Pio Nono took refuge in 1848.

**Geneva**, a city of Switzerland, on the Rhône, at its outlet from Lake Lemán. The residence of Calvin, and the birth-place of Rousseau.

**Genoa**, a sea-port of Northern Italy, on the Mediterranean. It became a republic about 1000, and was a great rival of Venice. In 1174 it owned a great part of Northern Italy, part of Provence, and the island of Corsica. Genoa was the birth-place of Columbus.

**Germany and Prussia.**—One-half of Charles the Great's empire has grown into modern France, the other half into Germany. The Reformation began to unfold itself in Germany; and in this land also, a few years earlier, the sound of the first printing-press was heard. The kingdom of Prussia has grown out of the little duchy of Brandenburg. The military genius of Frederic the Great raised it high among the powers of Europe. The King of Prussia was made Emperor of Germany in 1871.

**Gettysburg**, a town of Pennsylvania, North America. Here, in 1863, a battle was fought between the Federals and Confederates, which was the turning-point of the Civil War.

**Ghent**, the capital of East Flanders, in Belgium, where the Scheldt and the Lys meet; noted as the birth-place of the Emperor Charles V. in 1500. The Pacification of Ghent was signed in 1576.

**Gibraltar**, the promontory of Calpe, in the southern extremity of Spain; called *Jebel-al-Tarik* (the mountain of Tarik) from the Saracen leader who landed there in 711. It was taken from Spain by the British in 1704. The French and Spaniards besieged it unsuccessfully from June 1779 till February 1783.

**Glarus**, a Swiss town, on the Linth; the capital of the canton of Glarus.

**Goletta**, the port of Tunis, on the north coast of Africa.

**Gothland**, a former division of Sweden, comprising all the southern part of the country.

**Gotland**, an island off the east coast of Gothland, Sweden.

**Granada**, a Spanish city, on the Xenil, at the foot of the Sierra Nevada. Here the Moors made their last stand in 1491-92.

**Greece.**—Once Greece was one of the most celebrated countries in the world; in the fourth and fifth centuries B.C. it surpassed all others in arts and learning. It was conquered by the Turks between 1456 and 1540, and was subject to them for nearly three centuries. The struggle for freedom began in 1820. Greece was

declared independent in 1829, and became a kingdom in 1832.

**Grenoble** (once *Gratianopolis*, City of Gratian), a strong town of France, on the Isère; 58 miles south-east of Lyons.

**Haarlem**, in North Holland, on the Spaaren, which falls into the Y, 10 miles north-west of Amsterdam; noted for its brave defence against the Spaniards in 1573.

**Halberstadt**, a Prussian town; 28 miles south-west of Magdeburg; on a tributary of the Saale.

**Ham**, a French fortress; 70 miles north-east of Paris; where Louis Napoleon lay in prison, 1840-46.

**Hamburg**, a free city of Germany, near the mouth of the Elbe. Originally a castle built by Charles the Great for defence against the Norsemen. It is now a great centre of commerce.

**Havre**, a port of France, at the mouth of the Seine; 108 miles north-west of Paris. It was given up to Elizabeth of England by the Huguenots, but was held by her a very short time.

**Heidelberg**, a town of Baden, Germany, on the Neckar. It suffered much during the Thirty Years' War and in the time of Louis XIV.

**Hellbronn**, a town of Swabia, Germany, on the Neckar; 26 miles north of Stuttgart.

**Heraclea**, a city of Asia Minor, on the shore of the Euxine; it was laid in ruins by Haroun-al-Raschid. There is another Heraclea in the south of the peninsula, north-east of Tarsus.

**Herzegovina**, a district adjoining Bosnia, in the west of European Turkey, under the military occupation of Austria-Hungary.

**Hippo Regius** (Bona), a strong city of the Numidian coast, in Northern Africa, where St. Augustine lived and died. It was besieged by the Vandals in 431.

**Hispaniola** (also called *St. Domingo* and *Hayti*), one of the larger Antilles, north of South America; discovered and colonized by Columbus in 1493. He ruled it for Spain until superseded by Bobadilla. It is now divided into two republican states.

**Hochkirch**, a small village in Saxony, Germany; 37 miles east of Dresden; where was fought a battle between the Austrians and the Prussians in 1758.

**Hohenlinden**, a village of Bavaria, Germany, near the Isar; 20 miles east of Munich. It was the scene of a battle in

1800, between the French under Moreau and the Austrians.

**Holland.** See *Netherlands*.

**Holstein**, a duchy of Germany (formerly of Denmark).

**Hubertsburg**, a town of Upper Saxony, Germany; 22 miles east of Leipzig. Here in 1763 a peace was signed between Austria and Prussia, closing the Seven Years' War.

**Hungary.** See *Austria*.

**Huy**, a monastery in the province of Liège, Belgium, on the Meuse. Founded by Peter the Hermit, who retired to it toward the close of his life.

**Ioonium** (now *Koniyeh*), the capital of Lycaonia, in Asia Minor. It was taken by Frederic Barbarossa during the Third Crusade.

**Illyricum**, an ancient district east of the Adriatic. It embraced the whole of modern Dalmatia, and parts of Croatia, Bosnia, and Albania.

**Imen**, a lake in the west of Russia, north of the Valdai Hills. On it Novgorod is situated.

**Ingolstadt**, a town in Bavaria, on the Danube; 35 miles south-west of Ratisbon.

**Ingria**, a province south of the Neva and the Gulf of Finland; belonging to Sweden from 1617 until 1700, when it was taken by Russia.

**Inkermann**, a little east of Sebastopol, in Russia. The scene of a Russian defeat in Crimean War, November 5, 1854.

**Innsbruck**, the capital of Tyrol, in Austria, on the Inn. Here Charles V. was nearly surprised by Maurice of Saxony in 1552.

**Istria**, a peninsula jutting into the Adriatic, between the Gulf of Trieste and the Quarnero Isles. Venice held it till 1797. It was ceded to France by the treaty of Pressburg in 1805. It now belongs to Austria.

**Italy.**—Overrun by East Goths, 493; by Lombards, 568; annexed to the empire of Charles the Great, 774; and then to the Holy Roman Empire, 962. Italy was afterwards raised by her Republic cities to a fame rivalling that of pagan Rome. Not less changeful has been her fate in modern times. The kingdom of Sardinia gained Lombardy from Austria in 1859. It ceded Savoy and Nice to France in 1860; but in the same year it annexed Modena, Parma, the greater part of the Papal States, and Naples and Sicily. Venetia was acquired from Austria in

1866; and the remainder of the Papal States, including Rome, were annexed in 1871. The united territories form the Kingdom of Italy.

**Ivry**, a town of Northern France, near the Eure, where the army of the League was beaten by Henry IV. in 1590.

**Jemappes**, a Belgian village near Mons, where Dumouriez won a victory over the Austrians in 1792.

**Jena**, a town of Saxe-Weimar, Germany, on the Saale, where Napoleon defeated the Prussians in 1806.

**Jerusalem**, the chief city of Palestine; built upon four hills. Besieged by the Romans, 70 A.D.; surrendered to the Caliph Omar, 637; taken by the Crusaders, 1099; taken by the Turks, 1244; captured by Mamelukes, 1382; retaken by the Turks, 1517.

**Joppa** (now *Jaffa*), a town on the coast of Palestine, north-west of Jerusalem. It was laid in ruins by Saladin in 1191.

**Kadesia**, a battle-field in Asiatic Turkey, some distance west of the Euphrates. Here, during the Caliphate of Omar, the Moslems and the Persians fought for three days. The Persians were beaten.

**Kairouan**, a city of Northern Africa, founded by the Moslems in 675. It became a great centre of commerce during the Middle Ages.

**Kars**, a fortified city of Armenia, Asia; now belonging to Russia; 100 miles inland from the south-eastern shore of the Black Sea.

**Kieff**, a Russian city on the Dnieper. It was the capital of Southern Russia under Rurik: capital of all Russia from 1037 to 1167.

**Khorasan**, a province of Persia, now shared by the Shah of Persia and the Afghans.

**Kolin**, a town of Bohemia, in Austria, 37 miles from Prague. Here Frederic the Great was defeated in 1757 by Daun.

**Königsgrätz.** See *Sadowa*.

**Königsberg**, a German town on the Pregel, near the Baltic; a great centre of trade.

**Kronstadt**, a fortress on an island of Russia, in the Gulf of Finland; 21 miles west of St. Petersburg. It was founded by Peter the Great in 1703, and is the chief naval station of the Baltic.

**Kunersdorf**, a village of Brandenburg, Germany, on the Oder, near Frankfort. Here Frederic the Great was defeated by the Russians and Austrians, 1759.

**Lago Maggiore**, a lake of Northern Italy, at the foot of the Alps, north-east of Piedmont. The river Ticino flows through the lake.

**La Hague**, on the eastern side of Cotentin peninsula, Northern France, off which the fleet of Louis XIV. was defeated by Russell, 1692. Often confounded with Cape La Hague, on the north-west of the same peninsula.

**Languedoc**, an old province of Southern France, consisting chiefly of the basin of the Garonne. The scene of the Albigensian War.

**La Rochelle**, a port of Western France. Taken from the English by Bertrand du Guesclin in 1372; and held by the Huguenots from 1557 to 1628, when it fell before Richelieu.

**La Vendée**, a department of Western France, on the Bay of Biscay, remarkable for its royalist spirit during the great French Revolution.

**Lech**, a river of Bavaria, Germany, flowing into the Danube on the right bank. Here Tilly was mortally wounded in 1632.

**Legnano**, an Italian town, north-west of Milan, where the Milanese defeated Frederic Barbarossa in 1176.

**Leipsic**, the second city of Saxony, Germany, in a plain watered by the Pleisse; 60 miles north-west of Dresden. Famous for Luther's "Disputation" in 1519, the victory of Gustavus Adolphus in 1631, and the defeat of Napoleon in 1818.

**Lepanto** (once *Naupactus*), in Ætolia, Greece, on the north side of the Gulf of Lepanto. Here Don John of Austria destroyed the Turkish fleet in 1571.

**Leuthen**, or **Lissa**, a town of Silesia, Germany; 14 miles west of Breslau; noted for the victory of Frederic the Great over the Austrians in 1757.

**Leyden**, a town of Holland on a branch of the Rhine; 10 miles from the Hague; noted for its siege by the Spaniards and for its relief, in 1574. Its university is much renowned.

**Liegnitz**, a town of Silesia, Germany, 40 miles west of Breslau, where in 1760 Frederic the Great beat the Austrians.

**Ligny**, a Belgian village; 18 miles south-east of Waterloo. Here Blücher was driven back by Napoleon, June 16, 1815.

**Lima**, the capital of Peru, South America, 6 miles from the Pacific. It was founded in 1534 by Pizarro, who is buried in its cathedral.

**Lindisfarne**, an island off the coast of Nor-

thumberland, England; 8 miles south-east of Berwick-on-Tweed. Here Ragnar Lodbrok the Norseman was seized by Ella of Northumbria.

**Lisbon**, capital of Portugal, on the Tagus. For some time the home of Christopher Columbus. Here a terrible earthquake occurred in 1755.

**Lisla**, a town of Northern France, on the Deule; 130 miles north of Paris. Taken by Marlborough after his victory at Oudenarde; and vainly besieged by the Austrians in 1792.

**Lithuania**, a district of Russia watered by the Niemen. It was long independent; but was united to Poland in 1385, by the marriage of the Queen of Poland with the Prince of Lithuania.

**Livonia**, a Baltic province of Russia, east of the Gulf of Riga. Taken from Sweden by Peter the Great.

**Lodi**. See *Adda*.

**Lombardy**, the fruitful plain of Northern Italy, deriving its name from the Longobards, who settled here in 568. The present district of Lombardy, between the Ticino and the Mincio, forms part of the kingdom of Italy.

**Loretto**, a town of Central Italy, near Ancona. Famous for the Holy House of the Virgin, said to have been brought by a miracle from Nazareth to Loretto.

**Lorraine**, or **Lothringen** (once *Lotharingia*), formerly a French province between the Moselle and the Rhine. It was ceded to Lothar by the Treaty of Verdun, 843. The greater part of it was restored to Germany by the Treaty of Frankfurt, 1871.

**Louvain**, a Belgian town, on the Dyle. Its university was the cradle of Jansenism.

**Lowositz**, a town of Bohemia, Austria, noted for a battle between the Austrians and Prussians in 1756.

**Lübeck**, a free German town near the Baltic, on the Trave, which was for four centuries a leader of the Hanseatic League.

**Lucerne**, a lake, canton, and town in Central Switzerland, famous for their associations with William Tell.

**Lunéville**, a French town on the Vezouse; 180 miles east of Paris. Here was concluded, in 1801, a treaty between France and Austria.

**Lutter**, a castle and town in Brunswick, Germany, where, in 1626, Christian IV. of Denmark was defeated by Tilly.

**Lützen**, a town of Prussian Saxony, 12 miles south-west of Leipsic. Here Gus-

- tavus Adolphus fell in battle in 1632; and here Napoleon defeated the Russians and Prussians in 1813.
- Luxemburg**, a detached province of Holland, south-east of Belgium. It was made neutral territory in 1867.
- Lyons** (once *Lugdunum*), a great city of France, where the Saône meets the Rhône. It was a scene of the fifth persecution of Christians.
- Madrid**, the capital of Spain, on the Manzanares, a tributary of the Tagus. Napoleon entered the city in triumph in 1808.
- Magdeburg**, the capital of Prussian Saxony, on the Elbe; 80 miles south-west of Berlin; remarkable for its terrific sack by Tilly in 1631.
- Magenta**, a town in the province of Milan, Italy. Here, in 1859, the Austrians were signally defeated by the armies of France and Sardinia.
- Mainz**, also *Mentz* (German), and *Mayence* (French), a town of Rhenish Prussia, at the confluence of the Rhine and the Main. Here Gutenberg was born about 1400.
- Malplaquet**, a town of Nord, in France, close to Belgium, noted for a victory gained there by Marlborough in 1709.
- Manassas Junction**, on Bull Run, a river in the north-east of Virginia, United States. There a great battle was fought between the Federal and the Confederate troops, July 21, 1861.
- Mantua**, a city of Lombardy, Italy; 22 miles south-west of Verona. Vergil was born at Pistole, a village in the neighbourhood, 70 B.C.
- Marburg**, the capital of Upper Hesse, Germany, on the Lahn. Here in 1529 Luther and Zwingli met.
- Mardyk**, a French sea-port; 4 miles west of Dunkirk.
- Marengo**, an Italian village; 2 miles south-east of Alessandria, in Piedmont; famous for the victory of Napoleon over the Austrians in 1800.
- Marlenburg**, a German city, on the Nogat, a branch of the Vistula. Capital of the Teutonic Order from 1309 to 1466.
- Marseilles** (once *Massilia*), a great port of France, on the Mediterranean. The army of Richard I. embarked here for the Third Crusade. The French Children's Crusade also took ship here.
- Mauritania**, an ancient district of Northern Africa, corresponding to part of modern Morocco and Algiers. It was conquered by the Arabs about 667.
- Meander**, a river of Asia Minor, flowing west into the Grecian Archipelago.
- Mecca**, the capital of Turkish Arabia; 55 miles from the eastern shore of the Red Sea. Here Mahomet was born in 571. It was re-entered by the banished prophet in 629. It attracts pilgrims in thousands every year, from all parts of the Mahometan world.
- Mecklenburg**.—Mecklenburg-Schwerin and Mecklenburg-Strelitz are two grand-duchies to the north-east of Hanover. Given to Wallenstein as a reward for his services against Denmark.
- Medina**, a city of Turkish Arabia; 255 miles north of Mecca. Hither Mahomet fled in 622, and here he was buried.
- Mekines**, a Moslem kingdom in Northern Africa, corresponding to the old Mauritania, and to part of the modern Morocco and Algiers.
- Messina**, an Italian sea-port in the north-east of Sicily, on the Strait of Messina.
- Metz**, a strongly fortified city; 170 miles east of Paris. It was ceded to France in 1648; now a German town in Lothringen, formerly Lorraine. The city was besieged by the Germans from August till October 1870, when it capitulated.
- Mexico**, a city and state in the south of North America. The country was conquered by the Spaniard Cortes in 1521, but it declared its independence in 1821.
- Middelburg**, a town of Holland, capital of the province Zeeland, on the island of Walcheren.
- Milan** (once *Mediolanum*), the capital of Lombardy, in Italy; 80 miles from Turin. It was an old Gallic town: made a republic, 1221; taken by Louis XII. of France, 1505; by Charles V. of Germany, 1525; occupied many times by French and Austrians; made by Napoleon I. the capital of his kingdom of Italy.
- Millesimo**, an Italian village 28 miles west of Genoa, where Napoleon won a battle in 1796.
- Minden**, a town of Westphalia, Germany, on the Weser; 35 miles south-west of Hanover; noted for the defeat of the French by Ferdinand of Brunswick, 1759.
- Minorca**, one of the Balearic Isles, off the east coast of Spain. Transferred to Britain by the Treaty of Utrecht, but afterwards restored to Spain.
- Mississippi**, the great river of North America, flowing into the Gulf of Mexico. It



- takes its rise in Minnesota State. Louisiana is the State at its mouth.
- Missolonghi**, a small town of Ætolia, Greece, on the northern side of the Gulf of Patras. Here Byron died in 1824. Famous for its terrible siege in 1826.
- Modena**, an ancient duchy of Northern Italy.
- Moesia**, an ancient district, south of the Danube, corresponding to the present Servia and Bulgaria.
- Moldavia**, formerly a province of Turkey, west of the Pruth. It was a part of ancient Dacia. It now forms along with Wallachia the state of Roumania (which see).
- Mons**, a Belgian fortress; 36 miles south-west of Brussels. Taken by Marlborough in 1709, after his victory at Malplaquet.
- Montenegro**, a small state in south-eastern Europe, situated between Herzegovina and Albania in Turkey. Made independent in 1878.
- Montmartre**, a hill in France, near Paris, on the right bank of the Seine. It is said to have taken its name from the martyrdom of St. Denis, first bishop of Paris, in 272.
- Morgarten**, a Swiss pass, between Schwyz and Zug. Here the Swiss defeated the Austrians in 1315.
- Moscow**, the old capital and the holy city of Russia, on the Moskwa, a tributary of the Volga; 390 miles south-east of St. Petersburg. In 1812 the burning of the city drove Napoleon to undertake his terrible winter retreat.
- Mosul**, a city of Asiatic Turkey, on the west bank of the Tigris; once famous for the manufacture of muslins. Near it are the remains of ancient Nineveh.
- Mühlberg**, a town of Prussian Saxony, on the Elbe, near Torgau, and north-east of Leipsic. Here Charles V. defeated the Elector of Saxony in 1547.
- Munich**, the capital of Bavaria, Germany, on the Isar. The Swedes under Gustavus Adolphus made a triumphant entry into the town in 1632.
- Munster**, the capital of Westphalia, Germany, on the Ahe. Celebrated for its connection with the Anabaptist War, and for the peace signed here in 1648, by which the Thirty Years' War was closed.
- Muret**, a battle-field in France; 10 miles from Toulouse. Here Simon de Montfort beat the Albigenses and their Spanish allies in 1213.
- Näfels**, a small town of Glarus, Switzerland, where the Austrians were defeated in 1388.
- Namur**, a strong fort of Belgium, at the junction of the Sambre and the Meuse; 36 miles south-east of Brussels. It was taken by William III. of England, before the Treaty of Ryswick was signed.
- Nantes**, a French city near the mouth of the Loire, which gave its name to the edict of Henry IV. in favour of the Huguenots, 1598. There was terrible butchery here by Carrier during the French Revolution.
- Naples** (once *Neapolis*), on the beautiful Bay of Naples, the largest city of modern Italy. Long under rule of the Spaniards, whose tyranny kindled a rebellion, headed by Masaniello, 1647. Joseph Bonaparte was made King of Naples in 1806; succeeded by Murat in 1808.
- Napoli di Romania**, or *Nauplia*, lies on a point of land in the east of the Morea, in Greece, at the head of the Gulf of Argos.
- Narbonne**, a city of Southern France; 5 miles from the Mediterranean; much connected with the story of the Albigenses.
- Narva**, a small Russian town near the Gulf of Livonia; 95 miles south-west of St. Petersburg. Here was fought a battle in which Charles XII. of Sweden defeated the Czar Peter in 1700.
- Navarino**, on the south-west coast of the Morea, in Greece, near the old Pylos. The scene of a great naval battle in 1827.
- Navarre**, in the north of Spain; formerly a kingdom; a Spanish province since 1512. Lower Navarre, north of the Pyrenees, was united to France in 1609.
- Neerwinden**, a Belgian village, where the French under Dumouriez were defeated by the Austrians in 1793.
- Netherlands**. — At the end of the fourteenth century, the county of Flanders and the duchy of Brabant occupied the land we now call Belgium; Holland was little more than a name on the map of Europe. The land then fell under the Dukes of Burgundy, and afterwards under the House of Austria. Charles V. ruled the Netherlands; but the northern provinces, revolting from his son Philip, formed the Dutch Republic. In 1795 the Netherlands was joined to the French Republic. A king of the Netherlands was proclaimed in 1815; in 1830 the Belgians revolted, and have since had a king of their own.

**Neuburg**, a village of Rhenish Bavaria, on the Rhine. Here Bernard of Weimar died in 1639.

**Neully**, a small French town, on the Marne, near Paris.

**Neustria**, a division of old Frankland, embracing Belgium, the basin of the Seine, and all Western France north of the Loire.

**Newfoundland**, a large island at the entrance to the Gulf of St. Lawrence, North America. Taken possession of by the British in 1583. The sovereignty of Britain was acknowledged in the Treaty of Utrecht, 1713. Separate colonial legislature instituted in 1832.

**New Orleans**, a town of North America, on the Mississippi, 94 miles from its mouth; the chief city in the southwestern States of the Union.

**Nicæa** (now **Iznik**), a city of Bithynia, in Asia Minor, where the First General Council met, in 325. It was taken by the Crusaders in 1097.

**Nice**, a French sea-port, on the Mediterranean. Here a truce was concluded between Charles V. and Francis I. in 1538. The territory of Nice was transferred by Sardinia to France in 1860.

**Nicomedia** (now **Ismid**), a city of Bithynia, Asia Minor, on the Gulf of Astacus. It was the capital of the East, under Diocletian, and the scene of the last great persecution of Christians, in 303. It was noted in the story of the Crusades.

**Nicopolis**, a city of Bulgaria, Turkey in Europe, on the Danube. Here, in 1396, Bajazet defeated the Hungarians and the French.

**Niemen**, a river forming part of the boundary between Russia and Poland. Its mouth is in Prussia.

**Nimwegen**, a Dutch town on the Waal, where the treaty of 1673 was concluded.

**Nördlingen**, in Bavaria, Germany; 38 miles from Augsburg; one of the battle-fields of the Thirty Years' War.

**Norway** (North Realm).—At first it was the chief power in the Scandinavian peninsula. Along with Sweden it was joined to Denmark in 1397. After the Swedish revolt of 1521, it continued under Danish rule, till in 1814 it was united to Sweden.

**Nova Scotia**, a peninsula south of the Gulf of St. Lawrence, North America. Ceded to Britain by the Treaty of Utrecht in 1713.

**Novgorod**, a city of Russia, on Lake Ilmen, 100 miles south-east of St. Petersburg.

The seat of Ruric's government in the ninth century.

**Noyon**, a French town in Picardy, on the Oise. Here Calvin was born.

**Numidia**, an ancient country of North Africa, corresponding to the modern Algiers.

**Nuremberg**, a city of Bavaria, Germany; 97 miles north-west of Munich. It was prominent in the struggle of the Reformation.

**Oesel**, an island at the entrance to the Gulf of Riga, on the Baltic; now belonging to Russia.

**Oleron**, an island off the west coast of France, south-west of La Rochelle.

**Olmütz**, the old capital of Moravia, in Austria; 105 miles north-east of Vienna.

**Orleans** (once *Aurelianis*), a French city, at the most northerly bend of the Loire. It had a famous school in the reign of Charles the Great. The town was succoured in 1428 by Joan of Arc, thence called the "Maid of Orleans."

**Ostia**, a village of Italy, at the mouth of the Tiber; once the port of Rome.

**Otranto**, a city on the south-east projection of Italy. It was taken by the Turks in 1480; but they were expelled in the following year by the Duke of Calabria.

**Otumba**, a valley near Mexico, in North America, where the natives were defeated by Cortez in 1520.

**Oudenarde**, a Belgian village on the Scheldt; 33 miles west of Brussels. Famed as the scene of Marlborough's victory over the French in 1708.

**Paderborn**, an ancient town of Westphalia, Prussia. Here Charles the Great resided for some time.

**Padua**, an Italian town; 21 miles from Venice, by which city it was conquered in 1405.

**Palatinate**, for a long time an independent electorate of Germany; now a part of Bavaria, at the side of the Rhine. It suffered much in the Thirty Years' War, and was terribly ravaged by Louis XIV. in 1689.

**Palos**, a small port of Andalusia, Spain, from which Columbus set out, August 3, 1492.

**Panama**, a town on the Pacific shore of the Isthmus of Darien, Central America. Pizarro sailed from it in 1531, bound for Peru. The traffic to California now passes through it.

- Pannonia**, an ancient district of Southern Europe, corresponding to parts of modern Austria and Hungary.
- Paris** (formerly *Lutetia*), the capital of France, on the Seine, 110 miles from its mouth. Made by Clovis capital of his dominions, 510; besieged by Northmen, 885-87; seat of French monarchy under Hugh Capet, 987; chief scene of Revolution of 1789-95. The Germans invested the town for four months, 1870-71.
- Passau**, a town in the east of Bavaria, Germany, at the junction of the Inn with the Danube. Here, in 1552, a convention was concluded between the Emperor Charles V. and Maurice of Saxony.
- Patmos** (now *Patino*), a small island near the coast of Asia Minor, to which the Evangelist John was banished by the Emperor Domitian.
- Pavia**, an Italian city, on the Ticino; 19 miles south of Milan; noted as the scene of Charles V.'s victory over Francis I. of France in 1525.
- Pennsylvania**, one of the United States of North America, south-west of New York. It was founded in 1682 by William Penn, a Quaker.
- Pentapolis**, a maritime district of mediæval Italy; so called because it contained *five* cities—Rimini, Pesaro, Fano, Sinigaglia, Ancona. It was part of the gift which Pipin le Bref bestowed on Pope Stephen in 753.
- Perea**, a district of Palestine, east of the Jordan.
- Peru**, a country of South America. It was conquered for Spain by Pizarro in 1533. In 1821 it became an independent republic.
- Pesth**. See *Buda*.
- Petersburg**, a town of Virginia, North America.
- Philippsburg**, a German fortress in the bishopric of Speyer; 40 miles north-east of Strassburg. It was ceded to France in 1648.
- Phœnicia**, a country on the coast of Syria, at the eastern end of the Mediterranean. Its people were the first that sailed ships on the seas of Europe. Tyre and Sidon were the chief cities.
- Piedmont**, an Italian principality, now forming the north-western part of the kingdom of Italy. The home of the Waldenses or Vaudois. It was ruled by the House of Savoy.
- Pisa**, an Italian city, on the Arno; one of the famous Italian republics of the Middle Ages. It was ruined in a struggle with Genoa, and was united to Florence, 1405-6. Now famous for its cathedral and leaning tower.
- Poitiers**, a French town in the department of Vienne, on the Clain. The scene of a famous victory won by the Black Prince over the French in 1356.
- Poland**. See *Russia*.
- Pollentia**, an ancient town of Northern Italy, now in ruins; 25 miles south-east of Turin.
- Pomerania**, a Prussian province on the Baltic coast; was at first held by the Poles. Part of it belonged to Sweden from 1648 till 1815, when it was ceded to Prussia.
- Portugal**. — Corresponds nearly to the ancient Lusitania. It was conquered by the West Goths in the sixth century, and by the Moors in 712. On the defeat of the Moors, Count Henry, a Burgundian prince, founded in 1139 the monarchy of Portugal.
- Potomac**, a river of the United States, America; it forms the boundary between Virginia and Maryland.
- Potsdam**, a town of Brandenburg, Germany, near the Havel; 17 miles from Berlin.
- Prague**, the capital of Bohemia, Austria, on the Moldau, a branch of the Elbe. The scene of a battle during the Thirty Years' War, in 1620, and of a more celebrated fight in 1757.
- Pressburg**, a Hungarian town on the Danube; 36 miles east of Vienna. Here, in 1741, the Hungarians rallied round Maria-Theresa; and here a treaty was signed between France and Austria after the battle of Austerlitz.
- Provence**, an old province of France, on the Mediterranean coast, between the mouth of the Rhône and the Alps.
- Prussia**. See *Germany*.
- Pruth**, a river rising in the Carpathian Mountains, and forming, in the upper part of its course, the boundary between Roumania and Russia. It flows into the Danube.
- Ptolemais**. See *Acre*.
- Pultowa**, a fortified town of Russia, between the Dnieper and the Donetz. Here Charles XII. was defeated by Peter the Great in 1709.
- Quatre Bras** (four arms—that is, cross roads), a Belgian village; 10 miles south of Waterloo. Here Ney made an un-

- successful attack on a body of British troops, June 16, 1815.
- Raab**, a river of Hungary, rising in Austria, and flowing in a north-easterly direction to the Danube.
- Ramilles**, a Belgian village, 28 miles south-east of Brussels; noted for Marlborough's victory over Villeroy in 1706.
- Rastadt**, a town of Baden, Germany; 26 miles north-east of Strassburg; where Prince Eugène and Marshal Villars concluded a treaty in 1714.
- Ratisbon**, or **Regensburg**, a town of Bavaria, Germany, on the Danube. Here Frederic Barbarossa set out on the Third Crusade. From 1662 till 1806 the seat of the Imperial Diet.
- Ravenna**, an Italian city south of the mouth of the Po. It was shut in by a great marsh, formed of river mud. The only way of approach was by a long, narrow causeway. To this city Honorius retired from Rome; and here Odoacer and Theodoric held the Gothic Court. The exarchs of Ravenna held power as viceroys of the Byzantine emperor, from 555 till 754.
- Rennes**, a city of Western France, on the Vilaine; 61 miles north-west of Nantes.
- Rhé**, an island off the west coast of France, opposite La Rochelle. Garrisoned by the Duke of Buckingham in 1627.
- Rheims**, a town of Northern France; 25 miles north-west of Chalons. Here Clovis was baptized in 496.
- Rheinsberg**, a town of Brandenburg, Prussia, on the Rhine. Here Frederic the Great lived for six years before his accession.
- Rhodes**, an island of Asia Minor; 9 miles distant from the south-west coast. The city of Rhodes was famed in ancient times for its "Colossus" or brazen statue.
- Richmond**, the capital of Virginia, North America, on James river. It was for some time the seat of the Southern Confederacy in the Civil War.
- Riga**, the capital of Livonia, in Russia; 5 miles from the mouth of the Düna. It was taken by Gustavus Adolphus in 1621; but was taken from Sweden by Peter the Great.
- Rivoli**, an Italian town on the Adige, where in 1797 Napoleon defeated the Austrians. There is another Rivoli in Piedmont, 8 miles from Turin.
- Rochefort**, the third naval station of France, on the west coast; 7 miles from the mouth of the Charente. Close by are the Roads of Aix, where Napoleon went on board the British ship *Bellerophon* in 1815.
- Rochelle**. See *La Rochelle*.
- Rocroi**, a French town in Ardennes, near the Meuse. The scene of Condé's victory over the Spaniards in 1643.
- Rome**, the capital of Italy, on the Tiber. Sacked by Alaric the Goth, 410; pillaged by the Vandals, 455; ruled by Rienzi as tribune, 1347; sacked by the troops of Bourbon, 1527; besieged and taken by the French, 1849. Now famous for its ruins and for its art galleries. The chief modern buildings are St. Peter's and the Vatican.
- Roncesvalles**, a valley of Spain, in the Pyrenees. Here, in 778, the mountaineers defeated Charles the Great and slew his nephew Roland.
- Rosbach**, a town of Prussian Saxony, near the Saale; 20 miles south-west of Leipzig. Here, in 1757, the French were defeated by Frederic the Great.
- Rouen**, a city of France, on the Seine. It was the capital of the old province of Normandy. Taken by the Norsemen toward the end of the ninth century. Here Joan of Arc was burned.
- Roumania**, a kingdom of south-eastern Europe, north-east of European Turkey. It includes the former principalities of Wallachia and Moldavia. It was made independent in 1878.
- Roumelia**, a province of European Turkey, south of Bulgaria. By the Treaty of Berlin, 1878, the north-eastern portion of the province, under the name *Eastern Roumelia*, received a separate militia and a Christian governor-general.
- Roussillon**, an old province in the south of France, now forming the department of Eastern Pyrenees.
- Rügen**, an island in the Baltic off the Prussian shore, where Gustavus Adolphus landed in 1630.
- Russia and Poland**.—In the tenth century there was a duchy of Polonia, which, at the time of the Crusades, became the kingdom of Poland. Gradually the kingdom extended, until, in 1386, it absorbed Lithuania, and soon stretched from the Baltic to the Black Sea. Russia, then filled with broken principalities—of which the largest was Novgorod—was in the hands of Tartar conquerors. Ivan III. drove out the Tartars; and at once Russia began to rise. Peter the Great

- made her one of the chief states in Europe. Poland meanwhile had grown weak with discord. She was finally dismembered in 1795, and her territory was shared by Russia, Austria, and Prussia.
- Eyswloek**, a town of West Holland; 2 miles south-east of the Hague; where the treaty of 1697 was signed.
- Saardam**, or **Zaandam**, a town of Holland, on the Zaan; 6 miles north-west of Amsterdam. Here Peter the Great worked for some time as a common ship-carpenter.
- Sadowa**, a village in Bohemia, Austria; 60 miles north-east of Prague. *Königgrätz* is a fortified town 10 miles south-east of Sadowa.
- St. Bernard**, a pass of the Pennine Alps, by which, in 1800, Napoleon crossed with his army into Italy. The pass runs from Martigny in Switzerland to Aosta in Piedmont.
- St. Claire**, a French town, on the Epte. Here, in 911, a treaty was concluded ceding Normandy to Rollo the Norseman.
- St. Cloud**, a small town of France, on the Seine; 5 miles west of Paris. The name is corrupted from St. Chlodoald, a Frankish prince. Noted for its park and palace. Here, in 1799, Napoleon dissolved the Council of Five Hundred.
- St. Denis**, a small town of France; 5 miles from Paris. It was the burial-place of the French kings, whose monuments were destroyed during the Revolution, but were afterwards restored.
- St. Germain**, a town and palace of France, near the Seine; 9 miles north-west of Paris. Here a treaty favouring the Huguenots was framed in 1570.
- St. Gothard**, the chief pass of the Lepontine Alps, Switzerland. It runs from Altorf to Bellinzona.
- St. Helena**, a rocky island in the South Atlantic, belonging to Great Britain. Famous as the prison of Napoleon from 1815 till his death in 1821.
- St. Just**, a monastery in Estremadura, Spain, to which Charles V. retired in 1556.
- St. Petersburg**, the capital of Russia, on the Neva, founded by Peter the Great.
- St. Vincent**, a cape in the south-western extremity of Portugal. Here Miguel's fleet was defeated by Admiral Napier in 1833.
- Salerno**, now an Italian province, formerly a small state on the Gulf of Salerno, in Naples, which was a fragment of the Lombard duchy of Benevento. A prince of Salerno first invited the Normans to Southern Italy.
- Saloniki** (once *Thessalonica*), a town of Turkey, at the head of the Gulf of Saloniki in the *Ægean*.
- Samarcand**, a city of Russian Central Asia. It was conquered by the Moslems and then by the Mongols, when it became the capital of Tamerlane.
- San Salvador**, one of the Bahama Islands, between North and South America. The first American land seen by Columbus, who landed here in October 1492.
- San Stefano**, a village of European Turkey, where a treaty between Russia and Turkey was signed in 1878.
- Santa Fé**, a town of Spain, built by Ferdinand on the site of his camp during the siege of Granada (1491-92).
- Saragossa**, a town of Aragon, in the north-east of Spain.
- Sardica**, the ancient capital of Moesia. It was the seat of an ecclesiastical council held in 843.
- Savona**, a sea-port of Northern Italy; 30 miles south-west of Genoa.
- Scheldt**, the chief river of West Belgium, rising in Aisne in France, and flowing into the North Sea.
- Schleswig**, the isthmus that connects Jutland with Germany. Since 1866 it has been part of Germany. It was formerly part of Denmark.
- Schönbrunn**, a palace in Austria; 2 miles from Vienna. It gives its name to the treaty of 1809. Here Napoleon's son, Duke of Reichstadt, died in 1832.
- Schwyz**, one of the three Forest cantons of Switzerland (the others are Uri and Unterwalden). This canton has given its name to the whole land. It lies north-east of Lake Lucerne.
- Scio** (once *Chios*), an island off the west coast of Asia Minor. Remarkable for the beauty of its scenery. Terribly ravaged by the Turks in 1822.
- Scutari**, a suburb of Constantinople, Asia Minor, on the eastern side of the Bosphorus. There was a hospital here for the sick and the wounded during the Crimean War.
- Sebastopol**, a great fortress in the south-west of the Crimea, Russia; famous for its siege during the war of 1854-55.
- Sempach**, a village of Lucerne, Switzerland, famous for the battle of 1286, in

which Arnold von Winkelried devoted himself for his country.

**Seneffe**, a town of Hainault, Belgium. At a battle here, in 1674, William of Orange was defeated by the veteran Condé.

**Servia**, a European state, north-west of Turkey. Formerly a Turkish dependency. It was made an independent kingdom in 1878.

**Seville**, the capital of Andalusia, in Spain, on the Guadalquivir. Once a great centre of Moorish power.

**Sigiburg**, a fortress of Saxony, Germany, taken by Charles the Great.

**Silesia**, a Prussian province, divided by the Oder. Its capital is Breslau. It was seized by Frederic the Great in 1742, having formerly belonged to Austria.

**Simplon**, the most easterly pass of the Pennine Alps, in Switzerland; 6,595 feet above the level of the sea. The carriage-road over it, planned by Napoleon, was made between 1802 and 1806.

**Sistova**, a town of Bulgaria, Turkey in Europe, on the Danube.

**Smalkalde**, a town of Hesse-Cassel, Germany, south-west of Erfurt; famous for the league of Protestant princes which was formed in 1530.

**Smolensk**, a city of Russia, on the Dnieper; 250 miles from Moscow; bombarded and set on fire by Napoleon in 1812.

**Smyrna**, a large commercial city on the west shore of Asia Minor. It was the scene of the fourth persecution of Christians, during which the bishop, Polycarp, suffered martyrdom.

**Soissons** (in Roman times, *Augusta Suesionum*), a town of Northern France, in Aisne, near the Oise. Here a battle was won by Clovis in 485.

**Solferino**, a village of Lombardy, Northern Italy, 18 miles north-west of Mantua. Here the French defeated the Austrians in 1859.

**Spain**.—The Roman province Hispania was divided between the great kingdom of the West-Goths and the smaller one of the Suevi in the north-west. The Saracens invaded the land in 711; and the West-Gothic kingdom shrank into Asturias, while the great caliphate of Cordova covered nearly all the peninsula. In the twelfth century there arose three kingdoms,—Leon, Castile, and Aragon. Castile and Leon united. Then Ferdinand of Aragon married in 1469 Isabella of Castile, and soon wore the double crown.

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The Spanish monarchy reached its height of glory under Charles I. (Emperor Charles V.); but under his son, Philip II., it began to decline.

**Spartivento**, a cape in the most southerly extremity of Italy.

**Speyer**, a city of Bavaria, Germany, on the west bank of the Rhine; 22 miles south of Worms. Forty-nine Diets have met within its old palace. Of these the most famous was that of 1529, at which the Reformers took the name of Protestants.

**Spoleto**, a city and duchy of Italy, on the west slope of the Apennines, corresponding to part of ancient Umbria.

**Steenkirke**, a Belgian town; 16 miles west of Brussels; noted for the defeat of William III. by Luxemburg in 1692.

**Stettin**, a port of Germany, at the mouth of the Oder, which was taken in 1630 by Gustavus Adolphus.

**Stockholm**, the capital of Sweden, on the channel from Lake Mælar to the sea; 36 miles from the Baltic. Upsala was the capital of Sweden until the seventeenth century.

**Stralsund**, a Prussian port, on the coast of Pomerania, opposite the island of Rügen. Besieged without success by Wallenstein during the 'Thirty Years' War.

**Strassburg**, a town of Elsass-Lothringen, Germany, near the junction of the Ill with the Rhine. It was formerly a French town, but it surrendered to the German army, September 27, 1870.

**Swabia**, a district of Germany around Augsburg, on the Upper Danube; it now forms part of Bavaria.

**Sweden**.—In early times Sweden was the home of the Gothic tribe *Svenskar*. At first Norway held the greater part of the Scandinavian peninsula, and the Swedes were forced to spread into Finland. The Union of Calmar, in 1397, joined the three crowns of Sweden, Norway, and Denmark. Gustavus Vasa, in 1521, procured the freedom of Sweden. By the Czar Peter she was stripped of most of her possessions in the east of the Baltic. In 1814 Sweden and Norway were united.

**Switzerland**.—The central parts of Switzerland formed, about the time of the Crusades, part of the duchy of Burgundy. In the fourteenth century the Forest cantons shook off the yoke of the Austrian dukes, and formed the Swiss nation. In the time of Napoleon there

were many changes in the constitution; but in 1815 the number of cantons was raised to twenty-two, and the independence of the Swiss was secured by treaty.

**Tangier** (formerly *Tingis*), the capital of Mauritania Tingitana, in Africa, on the southern shore of the Strait of Gibraltar. The city was of Phœnician origin.

**Tannenberg**, a battle-field in Southern Prussia; where the power of the Teutonic Order was broken in 1410.

**Taranto** (once *Tarentum*), a city in the south-eastern projection of Italy. It was at one time the principal sea-port and emporium of Southern Italy.

**Tarsus**, a city in the south of Asia Minor, on the Levant; the ancient capital of Cilicia. Here the Apostle Paul was born.

**Temeswar**, a town of Southern Hungary, on the Bega Canal. Here Haynau utterly defeated the Magyars in 1849.

**Texas**, the largest, and, with the exception of Florida, the most southerly, of the United States of North America.

**Theiss**, a northern tributary of the Danube, flowing through the plain of Hungary.

**Thorn**, a town of Prussia, on the Vistula; 76 miles south of Dantzig. It was taken by the Swedes in 1708, and retaken by Prussia in 1793.

**Thoron** (now *Tibnin*), a castle in the north of Syria; 14 miles south-west of Tyre. The castle was besieged by the Crusaders in 1196.

**Thrace**, an ancient district in the south-east of Europe, corresponding to the present European Turkey.

**Thuringia**, a mountainous district of Germany (Thuringerwald), between the Weser and the Saale, which formed a part of Charles the Great's dominion.

**Tigris**, a river of Asiatic Turkey, rising in Armenia. It runs almost parallel with the Euphrates for 800 miles, and joins it above Bassora.

**Tilsit**, a town of East Prussia, on the Niemen. Here Napoleon I. and Czar Alexander I. concluded peace in 1807.

**Tolosa**, a Spanish plain, on the southern slope of the Sierra Morena, where, in 1212, the Moors were defeated by the kings of Castile and Aragon.

**Torgau**, a town of Prussia, on the Elbe, lying in marshy ground; 70 miles south-west of Berlin. Here in 1760 was fought a battle in which Frederic the Great was victor.

**Toul**, a fortress on the Moselle; 167 miles

east of Paris. It was ceded to France in 1648.

**Toulon**, a strong sea-port of France, on the Mediterranean. It suffered much from the Saracen pirates. At its siege by the army of the Republic in 1793, Napoleon Bonaparte first came into public notice.

**Toulouse**, a French city, on the Garonne. It was the capital of the old province of Languedoc. Here Simon de Montfort was killed in 1218; and here the last battle of the Peninsular War was fought in 1814.

**Tours**, a city of France, on the Loire. On an adjacent plain Charles Martel defeated the Moslems in 732.

**Trafalgar**, a cape in Andalusia, Spain; 30 miles from Cadix. Here Nelson fell in 1805.

**Trent**, a town in Tyrol, Austria, on the Adige. Here the Council of Trent sat from 1545 to 1562.

**Trieste**, an Austrian city, at the north-east extremity of the Adriatic; 73 miles north-east of Venice.

**Trinidad**, an island in the West Indies, discovered by Columbus, 1498; belonging to Britain.

**Tripoli**, a town of Northern Africa. It occupies the site of *three cities* of the ancient Carthaginians—whence its name.

**Tudela**, a city of Spain, on the Ebro; 110 miles east of Burgos. Here the Spaniards were defeated by Napoleon, 1808.

**Tunis**, a city of Northern Africa; 3 miles south-west from the ruins of Carthage. It was taken in 1585 by Charles V., when 10,000 Christian slaves were set free.

**Turin** (in Roman times *Augusta Taurinorum*), the chief town of Piedmont, Italy, on the upper course of the Po.

**Turkey**.—In 1356 the Turks got a footing on the European shore of the Bosphorus. They ultimately overran the whole Balkan peninsula; but the Danube, defended by the brave Hungarians, was a barrier they could never pass. Their power has gradually decayed, and is now very slight.

**Tuscany** (anciently *Etruria*), a former grand ducal state of Italy. In 1860 it was annexed to the kingdom of Sardinia; and it now forms part of the kingdom of Italy. Here the fine arts were revived during the Middle Ages.

**Tyre**, one of the chief cities of ancient Phœnicia, in Northern Palestine.

**Ukraine**, the district of Little Russia, along the Dnieper, comprising four govern-

- ments,—Kieff, Podolia, Pultowa, and Kharkov.
- Ulm**, a town of Würtemberg, Germany, on the Danube; 50 miles south-east of Stuttgart. Here Mack, the Austrian general, surrendered to the French in 1805.
- Umbria**, an old province of Central Italy, corresponding to the present province of Perugia.
- United States of America**.—They consist of one Federal District and 38 States. Thirteen of the States were originally British colonies. They declared their independence in 1776, and it was acknowledged by Great Britain in 1783.
- Unterwalden**, a Forest canton of Switzerland, south-west of Lake Lucerne.
- Urbino**, a town of Italy, 20 miles from the Adriatic. Here the painter Raphael was born.
- Uri**, a Forest canton of Switzerland, south of Lake Lucerne.
- Utrecht**, a Dutch city, on the Old Rhine; 23 miles south-east of Amsterdam. The Union of Utrecht in 1579 laid the foundation of the Dutch Republic. Here the treaty of 1713 was concluded, ending the War of the Spanish Succession.
- Valencia**, a city and province in Eastern Spain. Here, till 1099, the Cid held his court.
- Valenciennes**, a town in the north of France, on the Scheldt; fortified by Vauban. It is famous for lace.
- Valladolid**, a city of Old Castile, in Spain, near the Douro; 95 miles north-west of Madrid. Here Columbus died, 1506.
- Valtelline**, a long valley in Lombardy, Italy, traversed by the Adda. Here the Spaniards were defeated by the troops of Richelieu.
- Varennes**, a town of France, on the Aire; 16 miles west of Verdun; where Louis XVI. was seized, in 1791.
- Vassy**, a town of France, in Upper Marne; 115 miles east of Paris; where a terrible massacre of Huguenots took place in 1562.
- Vendôme**, a town of Central France, on the Loire, near Orleans. It was taken and dismantled by Henry IV. during the War of the League.
- Venice**, a city of Italy, on eighty islands at the head of the Adriatic; founded in 452. In the Middle Ages it was a great centre of trade. Became independent of the Eastern Empire, 997; subdued by the League of Cambray, 1508; deprived by the Turks of Cyprus, 1573; of Candia, 1669; handed over by Bonaparte to Austria, 1797; annexed to the Italian kingdom, 1805; transferred to Austria, 1814; insurrection against Austria, 1848; re-annexed to Italy, 1866.
- Vera Cruz**, a port on the south-west shore of the Gulf of Mexico, in America; founded by Cortez, who here destroyed his ships.
- Verdun**, a town of France, on the Meuse; fortified by Vauban. Here, in 843, was concluded a treaty by which Germany and France were declared separate states.
- Verona**, the chief town of Venetia, Italy, pleasantly situated on the Adige. It was taken by the Venetians in 1406.
- Versailles**, a town of France; near Paris; famous for its magnificent palace, built chiefly by Louis XIV. between 1661 and 1687. Here Louis XVI. and his queen, Marie Antoinette, were seized by a mob on 6th October 1789.
- Vicksburg**, a city in Mississippi State, North America. It was captured by General Grant in 1863.
- Vienna** (anciently *Vindobona*), the capital of Austria, on the Danube. Besieged by the Turks in 1529 and 1683. Occupied twice by Napoleon. From its central position it may be called "the diplomatic capital of Europe."
- Vienne**, a town of France, on the Rhône, south of Lyons. A scene of the fifth persecution of Christians.
- Vigo**, a sea-port of Galicia, in the north-west of Spain, where, in 1702, a French fleet was destroyed by the English and the Dutch.
- Vimiera**, a small town in Portuguese Estremadura; 30 miles north-west of Lisbon; where Junot was defeated in 1808 by Wellesley.
- Vincennes**, a strong castle of France; 4 miles east of Paris. Here, in the castle ditch, the Duke of Enghien was shot by order of Napoleon in 1804.
- Virginia**, the first British settlement in North America; it was taken possession of in 1584, and was named after the virgin queen, Elizabeth.
- Vitoria**, the capital of Alava, North Spain; where, in 1813, the decisive battle of the Peninsular War was fought.
- Wagram**, an Austrian village; 11 miles north-east from Vienna, where Napoleon won a great victory over the Austrians in 1809.
- Waiblingen**, a castle on the Rems, in



- Swabia**, Germany, belonging to the Hohenstaufen family. From it the Ghibellins took their name.
- Wallachia**, once a province of Turkey, along the northern bank of the Danube. A part of ancient Dacia. (See *Roumania*.)
- Warsaw**, the capital of Poland, on the Vistula. It was assigned to Prussia in 1795; but in 1815 was made the capital of the kingdom of Poland, which was united to Russia. In 1830-31 it was the scene of an unsuccessful revolution.
- Wartburg**, a castle near Eisenach, in Saxe-Weimar, Germany. Here Luther remained concealed, when under the protection of the Elector of Saxony.
- Washington**, capital of the United States of America, in Columbia, on the Potomac. Named in honour of George Washington. The President's residence and the government buildings are here.
- Waterloo**, a Belgian village; 9 miles south-east of Brussels, near the Forest of Soignes. The scene of Napoleon's utter defeat, by Wellington, June 18, 1815.
- Weimar**, the capital of Saxe-Weimar, Germany, on the Ilm. Here Goethe and Schiller lived.
- Widdin**, a town in the north-west of the principality of Bulgaria, on the Danube. Here Kossuth gave himself up to the Turks.
- Wilna**, the old capital of Lithuania, in Russia; on the Wilna, a tributary of the Niemen. In 1812 Napoleon took it, on his way to Moscow.
- Wismar**, a German town in Mecklenburg, on the Baltic. It was ceded to Sweden in 1648.
- Wittenberg**, a town of Saxony, Germany, on the Elbe. Luther was a professor in the university; which was incorporated with that of Halle in 1817.
- Worms**, a German city on the Rhine, 26 miles south of Mainz; famous for Luther's defence before Charles V. in 1521.
- Xeres**, a town on the plains of the Guadalquivir, in South Spain, where in 711 the Saracens overthrew the West-Goths and killed Roderic, their king.
- Y**, a branch of the Zuyder Zee, Netherlands; it extends in a westerly direction 16 miles into the province of North Holland.
- Yemen**, a district in the south-west of Arabia.
- Zaandam**. See *Saardam*.
- Zahara**, a town of Andalusia, Spain, built on a rock; 47 miles south-east of Seville.
- Zara**, a small town in Dalmatia, on the Adriatic. Taken by the knights of the Fifth Crusade, 1202.
- Zeeland**, a province of the Netherlands, comprising the peninsulas and islands at the mouths of the Scheldt and Meuse.
- Zorndorf**, a village of Brandenburg, Germany; 20 miles north-east of Frankfurt. Here Frederic the Great defeated the Russians in 1758.
- Zurich**, a town of Northern Switzerland, capital of the Canton of Zurich. Here Zwingli lived for thirteen years.

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